10112

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 3, 1902.

The Week.

If the late session did not produce another "billion-dollar Congress," it fell short only two hundred millions, surpassing the last session's appropriations by seventy millions. Little was said in protest, except by gray old watch-dogs of the Treasury like Congressman Cannon. It is part of the large lavishness which goes so well with the *nouveau-riche* assumptions of our latter-day Imperialists. Other phenomena mark the transition from our ancient spirit of jealous economy. President Cleveland was violently denounced for occasionally making use of a Government dispatch-boat. To-day the President not only uses that as a family convenience, but has also a "Presidential yacht" ready to be commissioned. Shall the King have his *Victoria and Albert*, and the Kaiser his *Hohenzollern*, and the American President not have his *Mayflower?* Uncle Sam proudly slaps his plethoric pocket and says he guesses not. We must leave the Administration a free hand, we are told; but a Government with a free hand, when that hand is full of the people's money, is one of the most alarming things known to prudent statesmen.

Solving a deadlock by deciding to do nothing was the method chosen to compose the difference between the two houses on the subject of providing a currency and banking system for the Philippines. The Senate, led by that unyielding champion of the gold standard, Senator Lodge, stood firmly for the silver standard in our Philippine possessions. The House was as stout for the gold standard. Both sides declared action to be of the most pressing importance. The reports of the War Department, of Gov. Taft, of the special commissioner sent to the islands, Mr. Conant, together with communications from Manila business houses, agreed that something must be done, and that quickly, to relieve the existing chaos. To all this, House and Senate alike assented. Each argued powerfully for the need of instant legislation. Each came forward with its own remedy for a confessedly acute situation. But agreement was found to be impossible—except the agreement to pass no law at all. So, with a great flourish of harmony, reports were made in either house recommending that the urgent relief which Manila is crying out for be coolly denied in any form whatever.

An official statement of the Administration's conception of what is the present political status of the Filipinos was filed by the Attorney-General in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia on June 24, in the case of a Filipino desirous of becoming an American citizen by the usual process of naturalization. Since Congress has not yet fixed the political standing of the Filipinos or their civil rights, Mr. Knox holds that, like the Chinese, the applicant cannot take out naturalization papers, but must retain the "nationality of the Philippines." Exactly what that is, the Filipinos themselves have been trying to find out, by force of arms and in other ways. Even Buencamino, now so loyal to the American interests, could not restrain himself when before the Philippine Committee the other day. What are we? he asked—American citizens or not? The answer is that, in the eyes of the Administration, the courts, and the Attorney-General, the Filipinos are merely subjects of the republic, inhabitants of a conquered territory held by force of arms. Even Buencamino, for all his new-donned loyalty, cannot attain the rights accorded to the humblest Turk, or Czech, or Russian, or African. How pleasant all this will read in Tagalog or Ilocano! And how it must make the Filipinos love us to know that we consider their lands good enough to exploit, but themselves not fit for citizenship even when they come and live among us.

For a long time past, the War Department has amused itself by insisting that there is a state of war in the Philippines, while at the same moment assuring the country that civil governments and peace are reigning in nearly every province. Thus, Gen. Chaffee has been given certain rights and powers which appertain to a general commanding an army in the field only when a state of war exists. A still more striking example of this clever way of having peace and a state of war at the same time appears when one considers the judicial system of the islands. In many provinces—in fact, all through those under civil authority—military commissions are trying hundreds of Filipinos for causes which are plainly within the competence of the courts established by Gov. Taft's Commission. In each case the charges against the prisoner read: "in the Province of ————, then as now in a state of insurrection," although the province in question may have been repeatedly declared pacified. One such trial, brought to our attention, involves an alleged crime committed by three natives during the time when hostilities were at their height. In this case, however, the military commission of three members declined to try the prisoners, in view of the fact that a competent civil court was at work in the same town; counsel for the defence pleading the law and the readiness of the civil court as a bar to further proceedings. In Manila it was reported that this commission would be severely reprimanded for its action, despite the fact that the law is on its side. But this is an isolated case, for everywhere else the military courts are proceeding to condemn Filipinos without proper authorization of law.

Admiral Dewey's testimony last week before the Senate Committee on the Philippines establishes beyond dispute the spurious character of the so-called battle of Manila. His guns commanded the city absolutely, but the Spanish Governor-General wanted a little firing to salve his imperilled "honor," and so, to oblige his opponent, Admiral Dewey very politely and jauntily "killed a few people," as he puts it. Apparently no hunter could destroy a dozen squirrels with less compunction. Moreover, he expressed no regrets for the American soldiers needlessly killed in the land attack. Perhaps with him, as with the responsible generals, the high rewards bestowed upon the leaders of this sham battle quite overshadowed the casualty list. Yet this is one of the achievements of which we were so proud in 1898. Admiral Dewey made it plain that he in no way officially recognized the Philippine republic, and that he never saluted the Filipino flag. But he did not hesitate to tell of the arms which he handed over to Aguinaldo or of the cordial encouragement he gave to that leader. "He and I were always on the most friendly terms. We never had any differences. He considered me as his liberator and his friend," the Admiral declared. What wonder that when Aguinaldo found that, instead of a liberator, he was dealing with the Admiral of a people which wished to conquer and buy instead of to free, he should have used Dewey's rifles in defence of his countrymen? Perhaps the most striking part of the Admiral's testimony was his reiteration of his belief that the Filipinos are better fitted for self-government than the Cubans. Nor was the moral effect of this impaired by the voluntarily added opinion that neither people was qualified to govern itself. For Cuban capacity the American nation stands sponsor.

That our broken pledges to Cuba are to be a leading issue in the Congressional elections, the action of the House Democrats in caucus on Friday night makes plain. It will come as a rude awakening to Republican newspapers which have been hiding their heads in the sand, and flattering themselves that,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

if they only kept still enough and lay low enough, the country would speedily forget the whole thing. As Senator Platt of Connecticut said on Friday, three-quarters of the people feel humiliated at the betrayal of Cuba by the Republicans. This recreancy of the party in power is what the House Democrats justly arraign. Senator Teller's argument will be heard in every Congressional district this fall—namely, that the Republicans are so tied hand and foot that they dare not touch any tariff duty which aids a Trust. This was also the main contention of the House Democrats. They made their resolutions apply strictly to the actual situation. Here was the pressing and continuing obligation resting upon Congress—to go to the aid of Cuba, and to strike off every protective tax on which monopoly grows fat. Why should Congress adjourn before doing its duty? That is the awkward question which the House Democrats put. Their caucus manifesto did not pretend to cover the whole field of party policy. As the Democrats in both houses had already voted solidly for Philippine independence, there was no need of a fresh deliverance on that subject. It was good strategy to remind the Republicans sharply of their sins of omission before they adjourned Congress, and ran away from what their own President has called the dictate of honor.

The United States Treasury begins its new fiscal year under pleasing auspices. The revenue for the twelvemonth just completed has passed all expectations. When last year's revenue reduction bill went into force in July, 1901, it was commonly estimated that its remission of taxes would cut off $40,000,000 from the nation's annual income. The internal revenue has, in fact, fallen short some $35,000,000 from the preceding fiscal year; but, in the meantime, a quite unlooked-for expansion of the customs revenue has produced on that account $16,000,000 more than in 1901. In other words, taxes producing forty millions annually have been abolished, and still the country's wealth and consuming power have increased so rapidly that the revenue yield has turned out only twenty-four millions short of the year preceding. This is a state of things to which a British Finance Minister could refer, in laying his budget before Parliament, as conclusive witness to strength in the Treasury and prosperity in the country.

It is interesting to remark, in the same connection, that the surplus cash in the hands of the Government, by Monday's returns, was the largest in the country's history. This surplus, including gold reserved against the legal tenders, reached in April, 1888, the sum of $341,400,000, which then surpassed all records. From that sum it declined, first through lavish disbursement for bond redemptions, then through an actual shortage in the revenue, until it reached at length the low level of $84,082,000 at the close of 1893. Not until near the close of last May did this Treasury surplus again reach the high mark of 1888. It stands to-day at $356,185,000. The surplus revenue of the fiscal year just closed was, in round numbers, $92,000,000; hence the seventy-million cut proposed by the measure which went into force on July 1 leaves at all events some margin. Not least among the gratifying elements in the Treasury's position is the proportion of gold which goes to make up the Treasury's cash reserve. Since last year the Treasury has had in its vaults much the largest sum of gold held by any single institution in the world. It closed the fiscal year 1901 with its gold holdings, like its total cash balance, at the high mark of its history.

Secretary Shaw has embodied in a Treasury order the principle frequently enunciated by the Board of Appraisers, viz., that American artists resident abroad are entitled to free entry of their own works. The Dingley bill accorded this not excessive favor to "artists residing temporarily abroad," and it was the word temporarily that made the trouble. The tendency at the Custom-house was not to assume that an artist's sojourn abroad was temporary, but, on the contrary, to maintain that after four or five years it must be regarded as permanent. Accordingly, many American artists resident in Europe have had private advice that they can bring home their own works only upon the condition of paying the regular duty on works of art; and we believe that in some instances the duty has actually been paid. Secretary Shaw's enlightened order practically declares that the privilege of free entry for an American artist goes with his American citizenship. If he has shown no intention of changing his allegiance, it is to be assumed that he means to return, and that his foreign residence is "temporary" in the sense of the law. If we are bound indefinitely to the absurdity of a tariff on works of art, it is at least a relief not to find ourselves in the position of punishing our artists for the foreign study and residence which are so valuable to them. In demonstrating that the application of a protective tariff is compatible with some measure of common sense, Secretary Shaw is serving party and public well.

In nominating Robert E. Pattison for Governor last week, the Pennsylvania Democrats put their best foot forward. Quay, it is evident, did not succeed in carrying out his expressed intention to "see to it" that the Democrats nominated some one who would be easy to beat. Having served two most successful terms as Governor of Pennsylvania, Mr. Pattison is well qualified, both by experience and by known ability, to fill the office for which he has been nominated. He showed exceptional courage last year in striking a blow at the "Quay" Democrats in Philadelphia, and forcing a reorganization of the party machinery in that city. He is easily the leading Democrat of the State, and there is much in his candidacy which will prove attractive to independent voters, though doubtless many of them will refuse to forget and forgive his submission to the Populistic tendencies which took possession of the Democratic National Convention in 1896.

By confining its platform solely to State issues, the Pennsylvania Convention adopted a wise and judicious course. The situation in that ring-ridden State fully justifies such a proceeding, if there were not other obvious reasons for it. Doubtless the platform will attract some independent Republican support which, finding little to prefer as between two such excellent candidates as Judge Pennypacker and ex-Gov. Pattison, would otherwise vote the Republican ticket. The promise of ballot reform, the most pressing political need in Pennsylvania, is made by both parties; but the Republicans have been so often faithless to such promises that it is difficult to find a reason for accepting this year's protestations. Quay is nominating the same old tools for seats in the Legislature, and Quay has in the past gained and held his power largely by election frauds. On the other hand, every argument, both of morality and expediency, urges the Democrats to bring about ballot reform. Their platform calls for a personal-registration law and a secret ballot, and ex-Gov. Pattison is pledged to carry this reform through if elected.

The hearts of the Michigan Republicans are true to President Roosevelt, but much truer to their own blood-bought beet. Their platform expresses "sincere admiration" for the "desire for justice" which Mr. Roosevelt has "brought to bear on all public affairs," but is resolutely hostile to "all efforts to destroy or emasculate" the protective tariff, as to any "plan that would interfere with the industries of the United States"—that is, to Roosevelt's Cuban policy. This reduces the Michigan admiration of justice to a fine willingness that others should be just. Do justice though the heavens fall, but not our particular heaven of beet-sugar. The action of the Michigan Republicans is, of course, a demonstration of the hold which Senator Burrows and Congressman Smith have on the party in that State. They are temporarily more fortunate than the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Kansas and Nebraska Senators who defied the President only to be rebuked by their own constituents. Michigan distinctly takes its place in the anti-Roosevelt column. In so doing it emphasizes the divided counsels by which the Republican party is rent. What position on Cuban reciprocity is it going to take in the Congressional elections? The managers would give much to know. They cannot be warmly for it in Massachusetts while furiously against it in Michigan. A dignified silence on the subject would seem to be the wiser course, combined with loud assertions that the great Republican party can be depended upon to solve rightly every question before the nation. Then if the voters have no sense of the ridiculous, all may yet be well.

In these days of vast benefactions to universities, it seems a little strange that Johns Hopkins University should have had great difficulty in raising the $1,000,000 which secures to it the gift of a beautiful permanent site on the outskirts of Baltimore. However, Johns Hopkins University has from the point of view of money-raising great disadvantages. The shade of the founder still discourages great givers. The alumni, the main resource in such matters, are largly college professors or members of the scantily paid professions. Perhaps, too, the fact that Johns Hopkins has held up very austere academic ideals in a genial Southern community may have had something to do with the too gradual relaxing of the purse-strings of the Baltimoreans. However that may be, it must be said that no university faculty so well deserves prosperity, while few have met with so much unmerited adversity. For this reason the opening of more prosperous days for Johns Hopkins University brings a peculiar pleasure to all friends of higher education in America. They will hope that it marks the beginning of a closer relation between the city of Baltimore and the University which has made Baltimore an honored name wherever men gather for the promotion of sound learning.

A pathetic interest attaches to the royal honors conferred while King Edward's life hung in the balance. While routine promotions are naturally the rule, many of the awards are of peculiar interest to Americans. That good sportsman, Sir Thomas Lipton, needed no baronetcy, but we are glad he has it. It may take a little time to think of Leslie Stephen and A. Conan Doyle as Sir Leslie and Sir Arthur, and the chance that brackets them with Sir Gilbert Parker and Sir Francis A. Burnand of *Punch* is a curious one. The first awards of the Order of Merit instituted by the King are of special significance. We cannot hold inferior to any order venerable through antiquity one of which the first members include Lord Roberts, Lord Kitchener, Lord Kelvin, Lord Lister, Mr. John Morley, George Watts, Lord Rayleigh, and Mr. Lecky.

Dispatches from Paris prove that Premier Combes has begun to keep the promises so plentifully made to his Radical majority. It was at the opening of Parliament that he said: "The Associations Law has reached the administrative and judicial stage. The Government will see to it that none of its provisions remain ineffective." The recent activity of the police in searching out unauthorized religious orders has been the prelude to a decree dissolving one hundred and thirty-five of them which have not complied with the requirements of the law. While this policy is in contrast to that of M. Waldeck-Rousseau, which was to rest content with the unenforced rigors of the law against the orders, it is still only a formal fulfilment of Premier Combes's promise. Of something like 16,000 religious establishments in France, rather more than half applied for authorization, a small number fled the country, and a larger number (notably, the influential Jesuit colleges) reorganized as quasi-secular corporations, in the hope of thus evading the law. In the light of these statistics, it becomes clear that the one hundred and thirty-five establishments which are closed by Presidential decree can include rather less than the fortieth part of those that are openly or covertly in contempt. One must suppose that the decree affects only notoriously disloyal orders. This beginning of an aggressively anti-clerical campaign will undoubtedly please the Radical-Socialist wing of M. Combes's majority, but they will feel that it is only the beginning. The real test of the anti-clerical zeal of the Ministry and of the expediency of the Associations Law will come when the Government seriously undertakes to ferret out the seven thousand or so unauthorized establishments.

Count von Bülow's open rebuke of the Prussian Agrarians for their extravagant tariff demands and for opposition to pending reciprocity treaties marks apparently a complete change of attitude. For months past the Chancellor has acted upon the principle of conciliating the squirearchy, which has accordingly been free to play havoc with Government measures, like the canal bills, and generally to obstruct legislation. The recent change of front was, it is said, ordered by the Emperor himself; and, in fact, it is more in keeping with the Emperor's policy of the mailed fist than with Von Bülow's mild parliamentary strategy. The high-handed policy has been, for the moment at least, justified by the passing of the bill accepting the Brussels sugar schedule, which had long languished in committee. There is a certain amount of risk in disciplining so compact and formidable a body as the Agrarians, but there is greater risk in allowing them unlimited rights of obstruction. As a rebellious element in the Conservative ranks, they are undoubtedly dangerous; yet coercion from the Emperor can hardly force them into secession since they have no natural allies among the Opposition groups. It appears, then, that in treating them frankly as insubordinates, the Chancellor and the Emperor have shown a very sagacious hardihood.

There never was very much doubt that the Triple Alliance, appointed to expire in May, 1903, would be again renewed in the original terms. Bismarck had made the bond too formal to be lightly repudiated, and the clashing interests of the signatory parties are more than offset by the threat of the Franco-Russian alliance, so recently and dramatically extended to the Far East. But it is fair to say that at no time in the past has the *Triplice* had a more artificial look than it has at the moment of its revival. If its terms have not changed, all the contracting Powers have changed greatly since 1896. In fact, the inclusion of Rumania in that year constitutes now one of the chief reasons for the further existence of the pact, for Rumania is the chief potential obstacle to the ulterior designs of Russia in the Levant. Without that partial renovation, the Bismarckian schedule would now with great difficulty find a *raison d'être* in the internal interests of any of the contracting Powers. Germany, for whose enhancement the alliance was contrived by the master mind of Bismarck, now has measurably outgrown the need of her allies. The two other parties, Austria and Italy, have, indeed, so little reason for standing by Germany in the event of a general war that one must consider their attitude towards the alliance to be Platonic in the extreme. Austria depends for the safeguarding of her interests in the Balkans, not upon the German army or the Italian fleet, but upon an *entente* with the Russian empire, guaranteed by the stalwart presence of Rumania in the road to Constantinople. In Italy, too, things have greatly changed since a master stroke of Bismarckian duplicity made France the enemy of Italy, and Italy Germany's ardent ally. The other day at Rome the Italian Foreign Minister, Signor Prinetti, closed an elaborate eulogium of the Triple Alliance with gratulations upon the complete accord between France and Italy. Within the year French and Italian fleets have exchanged visits, and Italy is invited by the French Foreign Office to make good in Tripoli the almost forgotten chagrin of the loss of Tunis.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

THE SESSION OF CONGRESS.

A review of the session of Congress just ending might well begin with the characterization which Junius made of the Duke of Grafton. Like him, it "did not rise to the dignity of being hated." Its sins were despicable rather than desperately wicked and alarming. It is hard to be angry with a body so feebly led as the present House, for example. And the sentiment which the Senate excites in an observant mind is not wrathful so much as it is sorrowful. Uncertainty, timidity, and ineffectiveness are, in truth, the words which one feels like using to describe both the personality and the work of the past session of Congress. To be entirely charitable, we will borrow Disraeli's phrase, and say that its movements have been those of "a man distracted by good intentions and difficult circumstances."

In any estimate of the character of a Congress, or of a man, we have to discriminate between what are called the negative and the positive virtues. The former call for no praise, though their absence merits the severest condemnation. No man, for example, can plume himself on speaking the truth, or being kind to his family, or showing gratitude for a favor. Those are but negative virtues; they carry with them no sense of complacency; every normal and honorable man is expected to exhibit them. So there are negative Congressional virtues which call for no laudation. It is expected of Congress that it will get through its routine work; will vote supplies for the ongoing of the Government; will observe the customary forms of public business. To expatiate with pride upon these regular and ordinary activities of Congress is like praising a man for not being a liar and an ingrate.

The true test comes with an inquiry into the positive virtues. How has Congress discharged the duties, not entirely perfunctory, which have been laid upon it? Badly, we think the fair verdict will be. It has not lived up to its own professions. It has wofully come short of the Presidential and party programme. It has, in one vital matter, thwarted the obvious wish of the country and brought to it deep mortification. This was bluntly, or inadvertently, confessed by Senator Hanna on Monday. He declared, in effect, that Congress had sadly disappointed just expectations, and would "hear from the people." This phrase ordinarily means that the party in power will be turned out; and a legitimate inference from Senator Hanna's language would be that he expects, possibly desires, to see a Democratic House elected next November. That, so far as we know, is the only effective way in which the voters can let the Republican party "hear" that they are dissatisfied with its course in Congress. However that may be, Senator Hanna's frank admission in open Senate is proof enough that Congress is not adjourning with any notion that it will receive an enthusiastic "Well done!" from the country.

Two highly important bills became law, but by a non-partisan vote. We refer to the bills for an Isthmian canal, and for a system of irrigation in the arid States and Territories. The party in power can take to itself no special credit for either. It must, however, have all the credit, or all the odium, for passing the Philippine Tariff Bill. This was made necessary by the decision of the Supreme Court undoing the previous unconstitutional legislation of the Republican party; but was a measure enacted in the teeth of the recommendations of Gov. Taft and Secretary Root, and was obviously forced upon the managers by the same protectionist mortgagees who prevented the mortgaged party from doing anything for Cuba. The bill for a civil government in the Philippines underwent many changes and recastings in conference, but emerges, we believe, with those parts of it which survive, in a promising form. It calls for an elected Philippine Assembly in the near future. It provides for the election of two Philippine Commissioners, who shall have a seat and a voice (but no vote) on the floor of Congress, like the delegates from Territories. This we can but hail as an advance towards that consultation of the wishes of the Philippine people to which we are bound to come, and towards that independence of the Philippine nation which will surely result from consulting its desires and interests, as well as our own. For standing out unyieldingly in behalf of those features of its own bill, the House deserves much credit.

It is, however, an appalling list of derelictions which has to be charged up to this session of Congress, as a whole. It left the party promises as a kind of standing catalogue of its sins of omission. It did nothing to carry out the President's leading recommendations. The Shipping Bill died of neglect or secret strangulation. No law to repress Trusts, or to compel them to publicity, was even reported. Army reform was done to death by spoils-seeking Senators. Even the bills to extinguish anarchy and to protect the President were left to expire. The new Department of Commerce could not be brought to birth. Banking reform was not even given a decent burial. A terrible record of failure, all this is, for the party which boasts that it is the only party which "does things."

But above every other shortcoming and disgrace must be placed the lamentable refusal of Congress to do justice and keep the nation's honor fair in the matter of Cuban reciprocity. It is not necessary to rehearse the long story of hypocrisy and betrayal. Suffice it to say that it is writ large before the eyes of the whole country, and that it will for ever be associated with the present Congress as the thing which gives it an indelibly shameful reputation. About this it is only necessary to use the epithets furnished by the foremost Republican newspapers, and by a Republican President himself, in order to set it forth in fitting terms. Whether it will lead to a Republican defeat this fall, we do not know, but we do know that it ought to. A stinging rebuke by the people is the only punishment for certain political crimes. It may be that Senator Hanna's remarks in the Senate show that he, like Pitt at one time, has "received some of the secret warnings that forebode the cyclone in which Governments go down," and that he foresees the defeat of his party for its sins. As to that, we make no prediction; but we are certain that if ever defeat was richly deserved, it is by a party which has made such a record for weakness, cowardice, and dishonor as the Republican party has made in the first session of the Fifty-seventh Congress.

REWARDS OF PUBLIC SERVICE.

President Roosevelt made his Doctor's discourse at Harvard last week a sort of extemporized treatise "De Amicitia." Friend after friend he embalmed in the amber of his enthusiastic praise. Long, Moody, Hay, Lodge, Taft, Root, Wood—each of them became as if a Rough Rider in the President's affections. It surely is a most engaging trait in Mr. Roosevelt, this loyalty to his friends. It is in fine keeping with the spontaneity of an impulsive and whole-souled nature like his. True, the very objects of his emphatic laudation might sometimes wish the thing said a little differently. If we must pray Heaven to be saved from a candid friend, we should not neglect to include an humble petition to be delivered from a too indiscriminatingly exuberant friend.

Nothing, for example, could have been further from the President's intention than to impute to the public servants whom he glorified a single selfish or grudging thought; yet his words came very near doing it. "Look at the pitiful rewards of these men," he seemed to say; "why, they have actually lost money in the public service! And then see how they have been scrutinized and criticised. Is this the way to encourage devotion to the public good? They do these things better in England. Your Cromers and your Kitcheners come home to peerages and money grants, while Gen. Wood not only is out of pocket, but has been openly accused of having improperly spent Cuban money to aid one faction of the Republican party in its contest with the other. Is not this a shame, O my fellow-doctors?"

Now if the President fairly drives us to inquire what reward Gen. Wood has actually had, we think it can be easily

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

shown that the republic has not been ungrateful to him. The esteem and fame that have come to him have certainly been such as to crown labors more arduous than his. Public recognition has not erred, in his case, on the side of being too restrained. He has distinctly been one of our heroes. Mr. Roosevelt seems to imagine that Americans are deficient in the capacity for hero-worship. On the contrary, we create our heroes too easily—so easily that we recklessly break their images, knowing that plenty more will be forthcoming. But, strictly on the professional side, Gen. Wood's advancement has been phenomenal, his reward glittering. Four years ago he was an army surgeon; now he has been promoted over the heads of five hundred of his seniors in the regular army to be a brigadier-general, with every prospect of becoming General commanding. And it is this splendid and almost unparalleled rise that the President intimates is meagre, and almost offset by the fact that Gen. Wood has not been able to live on his salary and allowances! What the General himself thought of pecuniary inducements, compared with the great prize he has won, was shown in his deliberate refusal of a civilian position estimated to be worth $35,000 a year.

Nor can we think the President's implied plea for immunity from criticism one which a public man should urge, as if such immunity were a part of his reward. No might nor greatness in mortality ever escaped criticism, or ever will. It is one of the necessary incidents of the profession of public servant, whether he be King, President, or Secretary. To take it good-humoredly is an important part of a statesman's equipment. It brings no dread and provokes no bitterness in the real princes of mankind. They, as it has been said, "gain by that scrutiny which would kill and damn lesser beings." It is no sign of lack of appreciation of its great men that a people should jealously examine their public acts. For a democracy to do that is simply to do its duty. At any rate, it will not be denied. The "many-headed beast" will insist upon knowing all about the work of its rulers; and if they are too thin-skinned or too haughty to endure the constant peering and questioning, their place is not in high office.

What we miss most in President Roosevelt's ingenuous address is a recognition, which we should have expected from him above all others, of the fact that true public service is its own reward, which it reaps as it goes along, and that useful work is in itself the source of the highest human happiness. "There is no fun like work"—that discovery, says Walter Bagehot, has been the making of many a young English lord, who has found that Blue Books are really more fascinating than betting books, and the dust and drudgery of public office more attractive than polo or yachting or elegant dawdling. That is the truth which we must bear down upon in all our appeals to young men to enter upon public service. The work to be done is the thing; and the exhilaration of pegging away at it, the joy of striving and the satisfaction of accomplishment—these are the rewards which come with it automatically. Any one minded to cry out for the "stars and ribbons and the other toys with which we children of a larger growth amuse ourselves," shows thereby that he does not know the true zest of public work. He needs to be set down to read Emerson's essay on "Compensation." The only rewards worth having are those which come all in the day's work; and the public servant can hope for greater rewards than the common man only as his work is more difficult and important, calls out every power more fully, and sustains with a larger pleasure of struggle and achievement.

IMPERIALISM IN PEACE.

Every instructed student of our public affairs during the past four years has known that the sharp test of an encroaching Imperial policy would come in the piping times of peace. Any Government can live while war is on; any party keep itself in power as long as the guns are thundering. The monarchy in bankrupt Spain and a Ministry of discordant and discredited Liberals held their heads high during the shock of battle in 1898. We have seen the English Conservatives wax strong on war. How greatly indebted our own Republican party felt itself to the war spirit we can perceive from the constant effort by the party leaders to inflame it and appeal to it in peace. All that is understood. War is the great preservative of feeble political leaders. They may face carnage with equanimity; but what tries their stuff is the daily task of humdrum statesmanship, the peaceful consolidation and administration in peace of the renowned victories of war. How are our new-fledged Imperialists meeting this crucial test?

Of course, the standing temptation of Imperialism at peace is to run into a vulgar kind of Cæsarism. Extravagance and ostentation are counted upon to do the work of war's alarms in tickling the popular fancy. This natural tendency of what he called "domestic Imperialism" was well defined by the Liberal leader, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, in a speech which he made not long ago. Asking what were its methods and characteristics, he answered:

> "I will recite some of them. It magnifies the executive power; it acts upon the passions of the people; it conciliates them in classes and in localities by lavish expenditure; it occupies men's minds with display and amusement; it inspires a thirst for military glory; it captures the electorate by false assertions and illusory promises; and then, having by these means obtained a plébiscite and using electoral forms in the servile Parliament thus created, it crushes opposition and extinguishes liberty. And the irony of the thing is this—that all this is done in the name of the people themselves, and under the authority of their voice, so that the people, while boasting of being supreme, are enslaved."

Sir Henry did not maintain that this drift of Imperialism had shown more than the beginnings of its mischief in England; but he rightly contended that it was the duty of the English democracy to withstand such evils in their very incipiency. If he needed any feather for his arrow, it was promptly furnished by a taunt of the Conservative Chancellor of the Exchequer, who brutally said at Oldham that the reason the Liberals could not get a majority in the House of Commons was that "they have not got the money." We have heard such boastful Cæsarism—or Crœsusism—from purse-proud Imperialists of our own. And in legislation they have gone a suggestively long way towards justifying Sir Henry's description of the habit of domestic Imperialism. It is not without significance that a swollen River and Harbor Bill slips easily through Congress, and is signed by a half-unwilling President, just as war expenditures begin to diminish. And however carefully the Irrigation Bill may have been drawn, with no matter what purity of intention on the part of many of its advocates, the net result, in the States affected, will be to make the people think that they bid fair to get lavish appropriations from the general Government for interests purely of locality and of class. In other words, the bread and circuses which an Imperial policy has flung to the masses in war time, must be continued, under convenient but transparent disguises, in the days of peace.

This, too, is easy—as easy as lying. But how stands the case with that constructive statesmanship, that execution of announced purpose, that patient work of unexciting administration, upon which our eager Imperialists professed themselves so well prepared to enter after the Spanish war? This is the real labor of government, as it is the searching trial of Imperialism; and its most boastful advocates are not now singing pæans to their success in the actual experiment. If anything seemed simple, natural, and facile, it was that Imperialism should keep its pledge to Cuba. That was the uncomplicated knot which President Roosevelt set himself, with light heart, to unloose, familiar as his garter. But was ever an Imperial world-Power brought so low in so short a time? One feeble vegetable has stayed the majestic march of Empire. The domestic beet has dictated foreign policy. Greed frustrated generosity. And the same sinister influence intervenes, as Senator Hoar pointed out, to muddle the efforts of Imperialism to do something in the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

way of peaceful legislation for the Filipinos. He saw very plainly in the Philippine Bill the demand of American wealth for the despoilment of the archipelago. So certain is it that the thirst for money-making through the Government, which war always sets burning, will seek to be quenched in peace by further draughts from the exhaustless fountain of a paternal and Imperialist Treasury.

Another sure sign of Imperialism at work in peace is the magnifying, not merely of the executive power, as Campbell-Bannerman said, but of the whole machinery and personnel of government. We seem to think that we shall be saved by the multiplication of offices; and office-holders themselves would like to be thought of as a sacred class, as much above fault-finding as a Chinese mandarin or an Egyptian priest of the Second Dynasty. This putting of the ruler's trust in the number and fidelity of his place-holders is a familiar symptom of Imperialism, when the drums are silent and the flags are furled. Louis Philippe said confidently to a friend who was warning him of the dangers besetting the French monarchy, "Do not trouble yourself, young man; France is a country which is kept in hand by its public functionaries." That note is suspiciously like the glorifying of patronage and exaltation of the office-holder to which our own Imperialists are so freely treating us.

In view of all these failures and temptations of Imperialism in peace, the question will be more and more impatiently asked by thoughtful citizens, "Why not retrace our steps?" It was a saying of that wise publicist Machiavelli, that it was the duty of every country, once in about ten years, to go back to first principles—to "recover the state" *(ripigliare lo stato)*. His ten years have not yet rolled round since we took our half-unconscious lurch towards Imperialism; but have not its disappointments, its unfulfilled prophecies, its accumulated embarrassments, its mortifications, and its perils, already had loose reign long enough? One thing is certain: either we shall soon see a sharp reaction, with a determined attempt to recover the state as we once knew it, or Imperialism will go on with accelerated momentum to work its harm and shame.

HOME RULE FOR CITIES.

The decision of the Ohio Supreme Court, declaring invalid certain recent enactments relating to Cleveland and Toledo, is likely to result in a new epoch of municipal development in that State. It also has a general significance, because it strikes at the root of a vice from which cities suffer in almost all of the States—the vice of special legislation. That this is a vice, nobody would question. It has been recognized as such in almost every State Constitution drawn or amended during the last fifty years. The trouble has been that Constitutional provisions have been easily evaded, and in most cases the courts have declined to interfere. In the decision just announced, the Ohio court has really struck a blow for home rule in the cities of that State, and has perhaps pointed the way for important reforms elsewhere.

Defiance of the Constitutional provision against special legislation for particular cities has been especially flagrant in Ohio. Since 1850 the Constitution of that State has contained a clause directing that "the General Assembly shall provide for the organization of cities and incorporated villages by general laws"—a phrase clearly prohibiting special enactments. The Legislature of 1852 carried out this direction by dividing the cities of the State into two classes. Then the work of getting around the Constitution began. The two classes were subdivided from time to time into a large number of grades, until almost every city of any consequence in Ohio was awarded a grade by itself. Thus it became easy to legislate for a particular city under apparently Constitutional form, as for "all cities of the first class, third grade," etc., although every schoolboy knew that there was but one city in the State which corresponded to this description.

But even this method of evasion was not enough, and of late the "general laws" which have been enacted in Ohio have been growing more and more grotesque. Thus, the Legislature has directed that a city having a population of 11,004 shall have its police appointed in a particular way, while another city of 11,022, only eighteen more, has its police force appointed in an entirely different way, the needs of the politicians in different localities apparently being different. Another enactment reads: "Any city of the second class containing more than 30,000 inhabitants and located in a county having a Superior Court." This singled out the city of Dayton. In 1890 a bill was passed providing a form of municipal government "for cities having a population not less than 27,690 or more than 27,720." This "general" law, of course, applied to but one city, Youngstown.

It is obvious that a system like this placed all the cities at the mercy of the political influences dominant in the State. The result was inevitable—confusion and misgovernment. Singularly enough, until now the Supreme Court of the State has refused to interfere. The decisions each year, however, have taken on more and more a tone of apology. "It must be conceded that the method of classifying cities for the purpose of legislation has been carried to the very verge of Constitutional authority," said the court a few years ago; and more recently: "It is well, if not widely, known that most of the eminent judges who participated in the decisions upholding such classifications, lived to regret the decisions and to deplore the results which followed them."

To continue to sustain classifications and special enactments like these was too extreme an application of the doctrine of *stare decisis* to last, and it is to the credit of the present court that it has refused longer to be bound by it in this instance. Whether the court has determined to upset the entire classification now existing is not yet certain, but indications point that way. This would probably render necessary an extra session of the Legislature and the adoption of a general code, to apply to the cities of the State. Certainly, in all the States, a standard or norm of city government is much needed.

It is to be hoped that courts in other States where special legislation for particular cities is prohibited by the Constitution will follow the example of the Ohio court. In our own State, so far as we suffer from special legislation, the fault is rather with our Constitution than with our courts. Except as to the granting of certain franchises and other rights, the Legislature is not restrained in this State from passing laws affecting a particular city; the veto power awarded to the Mayors and, in the smaller cities, to the councils having been regarded as a sufficient check. It may be doubted if this veto power has so proved.

It is encouraging to note, however, that the tendency here and elsewhere is generally towards a greater autonomy for our cities. The recent "ripper" legislation in Pennsylvania is a marked exception to this rule, but the first attempt to imitate it in Ohio by taking away from the city of Toledo the right to control its own police force has been promptly checked by the court. The popular revolt which frustrated an effort in this State to impose a "State constabulary" upon this city is yet fresh in memory. In St. Louis, where the police force is still controlled by the State, there is an energetic movement which will doubtless before long result in reform. It has been said that the real governmental problem in this country is the municipal problem. It is certainly one to which we are giving increasing attention; and with more thorough scrutiny it seems to become more clear that, having received from the State its general powers and principles of control, the city, in order to reach its highest possibilities of development, must be left practically alone to work out its own salvation.

THE SMALL COLLEGE.

Bowdoin College, which last week celebrated its centennial, is at present one of the best types of the American

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

small college. It has shown no tendency to outgrow or quarrel with its college estate, and it has set itself to developing the utmost efficiency along strictly collegiate lines. It has, however, followed modern educational tendencies more unreservedly than most of the other small colleges. By offering the three degrees of A.B., B.S. (Bachelor of Science), and B.L. (Bachelor of Letters), it has avoided the common confusion of designating diverse forms of education by the traditional Bachelor's degree in Arts; while in dividing its undergraduates into nine groups—as their preparation has emphasized ancient languages, modern languages, or natural science—it has frankly gone over to the elective system in its most logical form. Conservatives in the other small colleges of New England cannot fail to watch the effect of this experiment at Bowdoin with the greatest interest. It must serve either as an example or a warning for all the colleges of this class.

Last week at Bowdoin the thoughts of all were less with the future than with the past. Graduates named again proudly Longfellow and Hawthorne as Bowdoin's representatives in letters, and recalled the old studies and the democratic good fellowship which have for a century brought out of the raw undergraduate the scholar, the preacher, the lawyer, the physician, and the man of affairs. We hear much talk to-day about the passing of the small college, and are told that it cannot long compete with the undergraduate department of the university, which offers more and better courses and prepares directly for the various professional schools. We advise any one who trembles for the future of the small colleges simply to make a tour of them, and especially to visit one or several of them on occasions like the Bowdoin centennial. He will find an exuberance of life that hardly comports with a moribund condition.

Now, the strength of the small college, in the face of the manifest academic superiority of the universities, is naturally bewildering to the academically minded. Bowdoin has a score of professors in her undergraduate department, some 250 students, and something more than a hundred catalogued courses. By multiplying all these figures by ten one may get some rough idea of the difference in magnitude between Bowdoin and the undergraduate department of Harvard University. Assuming, what is probably the case, that the actual instruction at Bowdoin is quite as efficient as that at Harvard, it remains true that a Harvard undergraduate may study practically anything which his future career may dictate, while the Bowdoin undergraduate is restricted to fewer subjects and fewer branches within each subject. If a severely academic logic ruled lads who choose a college, or fathers who choose a college for their boys, there is no question that the doom of the small college would be already pronounced.

Fortunately, the heart still has its unreasonable reasons in these matters, and the choice of a college is only exceptionally made on academic lines. President Eliot knows better than to imagine that a quarter of his undergraduates have come to Harvard because of the elective system or any stately array of professors and courses. They have come because they wish to become Harvard men, an honor which many of them attain chiefly through elaborate evasion of the specific educational advantages which Harvard offers. In fact, the multiplication of courses and studies is valuable mainly to the small body of intellectuals which leavens an incoming class. Such an elaborate curriculum is arranged for those who have an intelligent plan of study and a life-work in view. An insignificant proportion of each college class has one or the other requisite for intelligent choice.

The inducement to enter a great university, for the average student, is the morale which that university inculcates. Here the small college competes on precisely even terms with the university. No one could attend the ceremonies at Brunswick without becoming convinced that Bowdoin turned out an uncommonly agreeable, cultured, and efficient kind of man. Many guests must have felt, as they looked upon that body of alumni, that they would be glad to have their boys Bowdoin men. This is the hold of every small college upon the community. And it is coming to be seen that the small colleges have distinct advantages for the development of men. The social life is so varied that it requires some kind of service of practically every student. The numbers are so small that every student must in some manner know and adjust himself to every other. It is a life in which a traditional code opposes itself mercilessly to personal conceit or idiosyncrasy, and in this way it approximates the conditions of life in the world.

The university undoubtedly produces a keener type by a kind of survival-of-the-fittest process, and it is probable that the exceptionally brilliant boy will more and more tend to prefer the university to the small college. But the university also admits the fact of unfitness too readily, and leaves a great number of men relatively isolated and at disadvantage. The small college deals more frankly and hopefully with averages. It foregoes the precocious undergraduate for the healthy and serviceable one. Of course, the small college is in every way bound to academic efficiency; this it fully realizes. But so long as it finds that its alumni prosper greatly in the world, and their service to community and State shows no noticeable inferiority to that rendered by the graduates of the university, so long the small college may accept with perfect complacency its apparent inferiority in all academical apparatus. For its strength lies beyond these things.

MEETING OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

June 30, 1902.

The twenty-fourth annual meeting of the American Library Association, lately held at Magnolia, was remarkably chiefly for its size. The largest previous meeting was attended by less than five hundred; this by over a thousand. The reason is plain. They met in Massachusetts, where every town but two has a library and some have several. The rest of New England is almost as bibliothecal, and New York is catching up. And Magnolia, though on the eastern edge of the continent, is easy of access and famed for its beauty, deservedly, as the visitors unanimously testified. There are disadvantages in such a crowd: if a general meeting is held, many cannot get in; if simultaneous sections are in session, one has to make a difficult choice between two interesting subjects. Yet these discomforts are far outweighed by the gain of sending the A. L. A. spirit into hundreds of new channels.

Perhaps the time has passed for startling novelties; but, as a whole, the papers were never more interesting. The old subjects were considered in a score of new ways. Cataloguing, for instance, in regard to which one would have thought nothing new could be said, got a new life from the Library of Congress. The final decision of cataloguing rules may not appear in itself to be of much importance. About the greater part of them there has come to be, after years of experiment, substantial agreement. Most of the other points have remained undecided simply because there were nearly equal advantages on each side. A small library might very well adopt one course, and, after a time, finding or fancying the other the best, might adopt that; even a large library might do so if it did not wait till it had accumulated too many cards needing change. But it is out of the question that the Library of Congress, adding to its catalogue half a million cards every year, and becoming, as it will soon, the cataloguer for all the libraries in the country, should pursue so vacillating a policy. It must settle disputed points as soon as it can, and, having once chosen, must adhere to its choice. The Library of Congress will legislate in cataloguing matters for the whole country—very appropriately. The other systems—Jewett's, Cutter's, Perkins's, the Library School's—cannot long hold their own against its momentum, for the libraries that take the Library of Congress cards—and no library can afford not to take them—will want to bring what they are obliged to add of their own make into harmony with what will soon form the bulk of their stock. Consequently, the attempt which a committee has been making for two years to formulate a code upon which all can agree, becomes in a way a matter of national concern. It was looked upon with great interest, and their work was generally approved. Something was, indeed, said of a distinction between rules for a written and for a printed

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

catalogue. It is useless. In fifty years there will be no written catalogue. Cataloguers will no more think of proposing to make them for libraries than a newsdealer would think of offering MSS. for sale at his stand. The Congressional Library will print for all, and the titles which it cannot supply will be typewritten by the libraries in strict accordance with its practice.

It is pleasant to turn from the early conventions in which central cataloguing was first a hopeless wish, and then a baseless hope, to the present, when, with American adaptability to circumstances, it is calmly taken as part of the ordinary course of nature. For this we must thank largely the energy of the Librarian of Congress and the devotion of his assistants. The work has been pressed under great disadvantages; a force has been organized, numberless questions of detail have been decided, the rules are now nearly completed. As a result, the author-catalogue is deserving of the highest praise. The subject-headings, however, are unreliable; they are not followed even by the Library itself, and, until a system can be perfected and followed, the cards would be better without them.

The President's address, like the overture to an opera, gave a résumé of the whole field, and introduced with lighter treatment the themes which were to be more fully elaborated later. One of the most important of these themes was children's reading. The conviction that the public is to be reached through those who will make the public of the future, has taken strong hold on librarians. If they can implant in them a reading habit by sending books to the schools and to homes, and foster a library habit by providing attractive children's rooms, they know that the library will have plenty of clients in the next generation, and their books will not stand unused upon the shelves. They need this assurance when those who use the libraries do not amount to one-fifth of the population in ordinary cities, and, in the largest, hardly reach one-tenth. The "home libraries"—that is, small collections of books placed in poor homes for neighborhood use, under charge of some suitable member of the family (there are some seventy in Boston)—have as yet been managed independently of public libraries by charitable societies. This is best; the libraries have all they can do in attending to the school libraries which they supply and to their own children's rooms. We hear much of child-study. They, too, have been conducting their child study by experiment and observation—not the observation that produces columns of figures, but the sympathetic observation which results in insight, and the experiments which lead to the adoption of better methods.

President Eliot's paper on "The Division of a Library into Books in Use and Books Not in Use" was in subject the same as the one he read before the Massachusetts Library Club last April on "Living Books and Dead." He referred to the rapid increase in the output of books, the gradual filling up of libraries, the slight value of much of their contents, and the cost of the larger buildings continually needed. He did not advocate the cremation of dead books; only their transfer to a book-cemetery on cheap land—and therefore at a distance from the main library—in a building severely unadorned, and therefore as cheap as fireproof construction will allow. There the corpses should repose, declassified so as to allow of close packing, put upon the shelves, in fact, in the order in which they arrive, and, so numbered (findable only by number), crowded in three rows on a shelf, and issued to those who want them enough to give their order a day beforehand, as in a German university library. The picture is not an attractive one, but it may be that it represents an objectionable expedient to which some libraries will be driven by poverty—an expedient, however, which should be distinctly recognized as undesirable, to be adopted only at the last moment and under stress.

For want of time, this paper was not discussed in meeting, but much conversation with librarians showed me that though they fully recognized the difficulties coming from increase of stock and from the mixing of live, moribund, and dead books, and although some of them for years had adopted the policy of separation, *within the building and with retention of the classification*, yet they were not satisfied with the remedy proposed—removal to a distance, especially if accompanied by declassification. They thought that a large part of what was gained by cheapness of land and building would be lost by reason of increased cost of administration, and that the residue would not pay for the inconvenience to readers and investigators—a loss which President Eliot, not being a librarian, did not and could not be expected to appreciate. Yet he himself had said, "What is worth keeping at all is worth keeping accessible." Books three deep on the shelves and in no order are not accessible. The objection to the plan is not so much the delay in getting books, which would seldom exceed twenty-four hours, as the uselessness of an entirely unclassified collection of books. Access to the shelves, which takes the place of a catalogue excellently well, is no substitute for classification when the number of books is large and the subject disorder absolute. In this scheme, access to the shelves is not to be thought of. No one but a carefully trained attendant can be trusted to deal with rows three deep. Only a well-trained reader can do any satisfactory work if embarrassed by the constant presence of an attendant. Besides, to provide a watcher for every worker would be extremely expensive. Free access, then, is out of the question. The student who needs to look over perhaps a hundred books on the chance of finding one that is to his purpose, must make his choice wholly through a catalogue. Whoever has done this knows the waste of time it entails and the great likelihood of missing something important. But only one who has worked with double-rowed books can understand the time and patience required to pick out, two-thirds of the time from the back rows, and to put away again, fifty or a hundred books, which must be sought all over the building, because the books on the same subject and likely to be wanted at the same time are not brought together as they would be in a classified library, but are most effectually scattered.

The saving, it will be noted, is largely in the cost of land. The construction in either case must be solid and fireproof. The storage can be just as close in a storage section of a main library building as in one five miles away. It is not beyond the resources of architecture to introduce such a stack in a part of the main building where all ornament can be dispensed with. The same reason that forbids cremation—that we do not know surely what book will be eternally useless—embarrasses separation. With segregation within the building and class order retained, a mistaken exclusion is of small account. On the proposed plan it is serious. Perhaps donors of libraries will bear this in mind in the amount of their gifts, and, when they cannot, will at least make their architects economize in show rather than impair what is, after all, the main purpose of the building.

TAINE'S CORRESPONDENCE.

PARIS, June 18, 1902.

It may be said without exaggeration that the two men who exercised the most influence on the thinking generation of France in the last part of the nineteenth century were Renan and Taine. There are many signs that their influence is on the wane, but it is difficult to say by what new influences it is being replaced; in fact, there seems to be no leading mind capable of holding up to the youth of the country a high intellectual ideal. Political agitation has replaced the conflicts of thought. Those of our best writers who avoid this agitation take refuge, by a sort of reaction, in the most distant past, and oppose a sort of neo-Catholicism to the revolutionary ideas which they see everywhere in the ascendent. Having known Taine personally, and fully appreciating the honesty of his purpose, the seriousness of his intellect, and his constant striving after truth, I could not help being much interested in a volume just published under the title 'H. Taine: Sa Vie et sa Correspondance.' It embraces Taine's youthful correspondence, from the year 1847 to the year 1853. The editor tells us that it will be followed by two other volumes.

One of the dominant traits of Taine's character was his horror of publicity and of indiscretions concerning his private life. His life was always most honorable and he had nothing to conceal; but he did not like to appear in person before the public. When the painter Bonnat made his portrait, it was on condition that it should never be exhibited in his lifetime; he never allowed the illustrated papers to publish his portrait. When the *Journal des Débats* celebrated its centenary, it was with great difficulty that he consented to figure in a picture which represented all the writers for the paper. He specified in his will that "the only letters or correspondence among his papers which might be published were those which treated of purely general and speculative matters, such as philosophy, history, æsthetics, art, psychology; and, even in those, all the passages which touched on private lives were to be suppressed."

Taine was born on the 21st of April, 1828, at Vouziers, in the Ardennes. For several generations his ancestors had led at Rethel the quiet and modest life of the provincial bourgeoisie. His great-grandfather, Pierre Taine, a manufacturer, was called by his contemporaries the Philosopher. His maternal grandfather, M. Bezanson, had a scientific turn of mind; he occupied himself with magnetism, and Taine kept carefully treatises of philosophy, of mathematics, of

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

algebra which Bezanson wrote in the latter part of his life. His maternal aunts were provincial old maids, who lived in a very retired way, and seem to have had the hereditary tastes of the family for abstract ideas. Taine's father was a lawyer, very fond of the country; he often took his boy in his carriage when he had to traverse the beautiful woods of the Ardennes. He died young, and Taine was really brought up by his mother; the profoundest affection always kept mother and son united. One of his uncles, who had spent several years in the United States, taught him the English language, and thus rendered him an immense service, which he recognized by dedicating to him his 'Notes on England.' It is no exaggeration to say that English literature doubled, so to speak, Taine's intellectual horizon, and contributed in a great degree to form his intellect. He always spoke with pleasure of the service which his American uncle, as he called him, had rendered him in making him familiar with the English tongue.

In 1841, at the age of thirteen, Taine was sent to Paris for his classical education. He lived there in a *pension*, and attended lectures at the Collège Bourbon. There began a life of hard study and constant labor. His family wished him to become a notary; fortunately its modest fortune did not permit this object of provincial ambition to be attained, as the office has to be bought. We cannot imagine Taine a notary. He had himself no special vocation; he was fond of study, and his intellectual curiosity was disinterested. In the intervals of the lectures, he took long walks in the beautiful Parc Monceaux, which was then half abandoned; he sometimes was allowed to ramble in the neighborhood of Paris. He framed, as soon as he arrived in Paris, a plan of work which he rigorously executed. At college he formed friendships with the most distinguished pupils, and obtained great scholastic successes. He went through the years devoted to rhetoric and philosophy under the direction of an eminent professor, M. Hatzfeld, who became his friend. He was not content with the usual class duties; he undertook several personal exercises. Some of them have been preserved, such as a "History of the Church in France from the 11th to the 16th century," a chapter on the Reformation, a "History of the Tiers-État and of the Parlement," a "History of the French Party in France, from the Beginning of the Religious Wars to the Death of Richelieu," and some "Notes on French Literature." We see already in these essays the natural bent of his mind.

There is in every young man's student years one which may be compared to the budding of a tree. Speaking of the years 1846 and 1847, Taine wrote, twenty years afterwards:

"If we have grasped some critical and historical ideas, they were suggested to us by the class in rhetoric. We were told that the oration ought to fit the character of the orator, and we were thus led to study this character. We went to the Bibliothèque, to the Museum of the Louvre, to the Cabinet des Estampes; we discovered by degrees in what a modern differs from an ancient, a Christian from a pagan, a Roman from a Greek, a Roman contemporary with Augustus from a Roman contemporary with Scipio. We tried to explain these differences; we began to half understand true history, the history of the soul, the profound alteration which hearts and souls suffer according to the changes of the physical and moral medium in which they are placed."

We see here the substance of Taine's doctrine—the perpetual action of the *milieu*, the medium, on the individual. In studying this action he was led regularly to envelop his literary criticism and historical studies in an elaborate analysis of all the moral and physical forces which keep the human mind in a state of ever-changing equilibrium.

The volume of correspondence begins with a letter of thanks written by him on the 13th of August, 1847, to M. Hatzfeld, just after he had received the Prize of Honor at the *Concours Général:*

"To you," he says, "I owe my success. They bade me at school be clear, methodical, regular; you alone were not satisfied with words—you gave me the means to be so. If I succeed hereafter, it will be thanks to your lessons, for you have taught me to work and to regulate my mind. . . . I have Descartes in hand; I think I can promise you a great taste for philosophy and perhaps a little aptitude. If I am not mistaken, it seems to me that I have always had some facility for understanding abstract things and for discovering generalities."

After his year of philosophy, Taine was admitted to the Normal School in November, 1848. This school prepares its pupils for the professorships in the colleges and in the faculties of letters. Taine was at the head of a list of promotions which contained, among others, Challemel-Lacour, who became a journalist, an Ambassador, a Minister, and who died in 1896, President of the Senate; J. J. Weiss, a very distinguished journalist, who died in the same year; and Perraud, now Cardinal, a member of the French Academy. At the School, besides the work imposed by the rules, Taine continued his personal studies in literature, history, and philosophy. He remained three years at the School, at a time when there was a great fermentation of ideas, after the Revolution of 1848. Taine was not drawn into the political vortex of that period; he never had any taste for every-day politics; he confined himself more to his literary work. His letters to Prévost-Paradol, written at that time, which are extremely numerous, testify to the intense activity of his mind. He worked on himself, so to speak, as on a *tabula rasa;* he had no prejudices, no traditional or fixed opinions; he placed himself somewhat in the mental attitude of Descartes when the great philosopher wrote his 'Discours sur la Méthode.' He had an ardent love of truth; it is interesting to see so young a man write to his young friend in this vein:

"Who tells you that the truth is inaccessible? Is it because you have not found it? What you need is a method; I speak from experience. Things incomprehensible at first have become clear to me only when I applied myself to them in the proper way. I do not speak of the common method dinned into our ears in our first month of philosophy. There is a much higher method, much clearer, much surer—the method of Spinoza. Do not renounce the truth. . . . You will find how the contradictions of the philosophers which throw you in doubt, are essentially weak; how all the really great minds agree. Somebody said that philosophy, like mathematics, has been renewed and developed two or three times, but that it has not been changed; and it is quite true. There is a superior point of view from which the totality of things can be embraced and difficulties solved. Two or three great men have attained it, and to them we must attach ourselves. Therefore, take courage and be skeptical only by way of precaution."

The letters to Prévost-Paradol will probably be found the most interesting of this first volume. There are fourteen of them written in 1849, eleven in 1850. The other correspondents are Mademoiselle Virginie Taine; the mother and sisters of Taine; Prof. Ernest Havet, M. de Suckau. It may be said in truth that all these letters deserve to be read; they show the yeastiness, if I may use the word, of a young man eager for truth, anxious to find it by independent means, gradually, by intense application and systematic effort. In the year 1851 we find Taine professor at Nevers, and afterward at Poitiers; he was later appointed to Besançon, but asked for leave to return to Paris for his thesis as doctor in letters.

Correspondence.

MARY DYER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I, as one of Mary Dyer's numerous descendants and devoted admirers, thank Mr. Worthington C. Ford for his sympathetic appreciation of her case in 1659, and for the remarkably enlightening discovery which he has made public of a letter from her husband, my grandfather's great-grandfather's grandfather, William Dyer? I am grateful also to you, sir, for publishing the letter in full.

This letter is an arraignment of the Massachusetts General Court for "merciless crueltie" to the writer's wife. It is not precisely lawyer-like in its mood, but its expressions are those of one who had been trained in the law, and thus gives color to the connection between the writer and Sir James Dier, the pride of Somerset in Elizabethan days. If I am not mistaken, William Dyer was his great-nephew—so it appears from the Somerset visitation of 1623. The same commingling of intense moral indignation and indignant protest against grievous wrong with the meticulous precision of argument characteristic of the law shows in the closing words of William Dyer's letter to the same General Court of May 3, 1660, where he pleads with tears for the life of his "one most dearly beloved":

"I shall forbeare to troble your Honrs wih words neyther am I in a capacity to expatiat myself att present: I only say this yor selues haue been & are or may bee husbands to wife or wiues so am I, yea to one most dearely beloued: oh do not you depriue me of her, but I pray giue her me once agen & I shall bee so much obleiged for euer, that I shall endeavor continually to utter my thankes & render yor Loue & Honr most renowned: pitty mee, I begg itt wth teares, and rest yorrs

"most humbly suppliant
"Wm. Dyre."

A point of more general interest, historically, is that the General Court of Massachusetts, having been arraigned for "merciless cruelty" by William Dyer (in the letter discovered by Mr. Ford and first published by you on May 29, 1902), on the 7th of September, 1659, felt called upon to make answer by a proclamation in rejoinder on October 18, 1659, as follows:

A DECLARATION | of the | GENERAL COURT | of the | MASSACHUSETTS | Holden at *Boston*

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

in *New England*, October 18, 1659. Concerning the Execution of two Quakers.

Although the justice of our proceedings against William Robinson, Marmaduke Stephenson *and* Mary Dyer, *Supported by the Authority of this Court, the Lawes of the Country; and the Law of God, may rather persuade us to expect incouragement from all prudent and pious men, then convince us of any necessity to Apologize for the same, yet for as much as men of weaker parts, out of pitty and commiseration (a commendable and Christian virtue yet easily abused and susceptible of sini ter and dangerous impressions) for want of full information, may be less satisfied, & men of perverser principles, may take occasi'n hereby to calumniate us, and render us as bloody persecutors, to satisfie the one and stop the mouths of the other, we thought it requisite to declare.* That about three years since divers persons professing themselves *Quakers* (of whose pernicious Opinions and Practices we had received intelligence from good hands, from *Barbadoes* to *England*,) arrived at *Boston*, whose persons were only secured to be sent away by the first opportunity, without censure or punishment, although their professed tenets, turbulent and contemptuous behaviour to Authority would have justified a severer animadversion, yet the prudence of this Court was exercised onely in making provision to secure peace and order here established against their attempts whose design (we were well assurd of by our own experience, as well as by the example of their predecessors in *Munster*) was to undermine and ruin the same, And accordingly a Law was made and published prohibiting all Masters of Ships to bring any *Quakers* into this jurisdiction and themselves from comming in on penalty of the House of Correction till they could be sent away. Notwithstanding which by a back Door they found entrance, and the penalty inflicted on themselves, proving insufficient to restrain their impudent and insolent obtrusions, was increased by the loss of the ears of those that offended the second time, which also being too weak a defence against their impetuous fanatick fury, necessitated us to endeavour our security, and upon serious consideration after the former experiments, by their incessant assaults, a Law was made that such persons should be banished on pain of Death, according to the example of *England* in their provision against *Jesuites*, which sentence being regularly pronounced at the last Court of Assistants against the parties above named, and they either returning or continuing presumptuously in this jurisdiction, after the time limited, were apprehended, and owning themselves to be the persons banished, were sentenced (by the Court) to death, according to the Law aforesaid which hath been executed upon two of them: *Mary Dyer* upon the petition of her Son and the mercy and clemency of this Court, had liberty to depart within two dayes, which she hath accepted of.

The consideration of our gradual proceeding, will vindicate us from the clamorous accusations of severity; our own just and necessary defence calling upon us (other means fayling) to offer the poynt, which these persons have violently, and wilfully rushed upon, and thereby become *felons de se*, which might it have been prevented and the Soveraign Law *Salus populi* been preserved, our former proceedings, as well as the sparing *Mary Dyer*, upon an inconsiderable intercession, will manifestly evince, we desire their lives absent, rather then their death present.

Printed by their order in
NEW ENGLAND
Edward Rawson, Secretary.

Reprinted in *London*, 1659.

This Declaration was discovered by me bound up in a miscellaneous collection of pamphlets entitled "Quakers" and catalogued in the Bodleian Library "Woods 645." I published it with documents, one other among which had never been printed (see in the Public Record Office *Colonial Papers ix. 74*), in a series of notes on "William Dyer, a Somerset Royalist in New England," in the *Somerset & Dorset Notes & Queries* (1899-1900). Mr. Samuel Green of the Massachusetts Historical Society, to whom my discovery was communicated by the late lamented John Fiske, had no record of the printing of such a declaration in New England implied by the note on the Bodleian Broadsheet, "Reprinted in London, 1659." I therefore appended the note: "No traces exist of the original printing in New England here alluded to. Possibly the notion that this document was a reprint arose in England, where its apologetic temper would excite no surprise." Now that Mr. Ford has discovered William Dyer's arraignment of the General Court, delivered "into ye court by his wife M: D:" on September 7, 1659, the apologetic temper of the Declaration is explained, and it seems certain that the Declaration was first printed at Boston and then reprinted in London.

The fact should be borne in mind that we can understand the relentless animus of the colonial authorities of Massachusetts Bay in their persecution of Mary Dyer in 1659, and her execution in 1660, only by going back twenty-odd years and reading one of the darkest pages in the gruesome history of pious superstition—an episode which took place before William Dyer and his wife shook from their feet the dust of Massachusetts and joined in the foundation of Rhode Island. This episode is so revolting that it can hardly figure in history as it is now written, although it is blazoned forth in Governor Winthrop's Diary edited by Mr. Savage. Under Winthrop began the wanton persecution of Mary Dyer in the month of October, 1637, and, viewed in the lurid light of the annals of that year, her barbarous molestation and imprisonment of 1659, followed in 1660 by her execution, takes on all the aspect of an anti-climax.

Yours truly, LOUIS DYER.

OXFORD, June 10, 1902.

SHAKSPERE SONNETS IN MS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Dobell, the delightful disorder of whose shop in Charing Cross Road has doubtless furnished rich browsing for many of your book-loving readers, includes in his June catalogue an item of exceptional interest to vary the monotony of "quarto, calf, gilt, fine copy, neat," at so many £ s. d., and puts forth with this catalogue a facsimile leaf of a seventeenth-century miscellany that will be unusually interesting to Shakspere scholars. The miscellany is one of those early collections of MS. poems which in many cases furnish the only textual source for the somewhat fugitive lyric poetry of the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries. It embraces, among other copies, excerpts from Shakspere's Sonnets. The facsimile page shows three of these sonnets, two made up by running together lines from various sonnets, and one containing Sonnet CVII complete.

At the top of the page stands a couplet from Ben Jonson's verses prefatory to the Folio of 1623:

"Nature her selfe was proud of his designes
And Joy'd to weare the dressings of his lines."

with "Shakespeare" in the margin opposite. This varies from the couplet as it stands in the Folio in having "dressings" for "dressing"—the word ought to be plural, see the Oxford Dictionary 4 b. The handwriting of the couplet is apparently the same with that of the rest of the page, but the verses are written with a different pen, if one may judge from the facsimile.

Then follow three sonnets, unpunctuated, the first without title:

LX. 5 Natiuity once in ye maine of light
6 Crawles to maturity wherewith being Crownd
7 Crooked Eclipses gainst his glory fight
8 And Time that gaue doth now his gift confound
9 Time doth Transfix ye Flourish set on youth
10 And Delves ye Paralels in Beautys Brow
11 Feeds on ye raritys of Natures truth
12 And nothing stands but for his sith to mow
LXV. 3 O how shall beauty with this rage hold plea
4 Whose action is no stronger then A Flower
5 O how shall summers hungry breath hold out
6 Against ye wrackfull siege of battring days
7 When Rocks Impregnable are not so stout
8 Nor gates of steele so strong but time decays

The first part of this stanza is (as I have indicated at the side) from Sonnet LX; to this are joined vv. 3-8 from Sonnet LXV; the lack of rhyme between "plea" and "flower" marking the break. The first passage is substantially the same as that of the text of 1609, but in the second passage appear two interesting variants from the *textus receptus:*

"O how shall beauty with this rage hold plea"

is certainly smoother than

"How with this rage shall beautie hold a plea";

but "hungry breath" is as clearly a corruption of "hunny breath," a phrase which Shakspere makes use of in "Titus Andronicus" II. 4. 25. This latter variant is interesting, however, in showing the reading of the edition of 1640. The "wreckful" of our texts in v. 6 of Sonnet LXV is a modern impertinence; the Quarto, 1609, reads "wrackful" as does this MS. The modern substitute is just as pedantic as would be "wreck and ruin" for "rack and ruin." But poor Shakspere has had so much to suffer from being twisted into schoolmistress's English that perhaps such a small matter as this is hardly worth noting.

Following the above comes Shakspere's Sonnet CVII, with the title "A Monument," complete and substantially as in the Quarto of 1609, save that

"Whilst he Insults ore dul & sencelesse tribes"

stands in the MS. for

"While he insults ore dull and speachlesse tribes";

and

"When tombs of brasse and tyrants crests are spent"

appears in the MS. instead of

"When tyrants crests and tombs of brasse are spent."

The first of these variants, "sencelesse," is clearly inferior to the "speachlesse" of the *textus receptus*, for Shakspere is thinking of his articulate monument outliving those of dull and speechless tribes. The second, reversing the order of the clauses as they stand in the Quarto of 1609, gives a smoother verse. (It should be noted that, in Elizabethan English, "tyran" was a common form of the word, and its employment in v. 14 avoids the cacophonous *t*'s.)

The third Sonnet of the facsimile page has the title "Cruel," and runs:

I. 5 Thou Contracted to thine owne bright eyes
6 Feedst thy light flame with selfe substantial fewell
7 Makeing a famine where aboundance lies
8 Thy selfe thy foe to thy sweet selfe too cruell
9 Thou that art now the worlds fresh ornament
10 And onely herauld to ye Gaudy spring

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

11 Within thine owne Bud Buriest thy Contend*
12 And tender Churle makes wast in niggarding
13 Pitty ye world or Els this Glutton bee
14 To Eat ye worlds due by ye world & thee
II. 1 When forty winters shall besiege† thy brow
2 And Dig deep tranches in thy beautyes field
3 Thy youths Proud liuery so gazd on now
4 Wil be A totterd‡ weed of small worth held
LIV. 5 The Canker bloomes haue ful as deepe a dy
6 As ye Perfumed tincture of ye roses

The figures in the margin again indicate the sources of the various parts of this imperfect sonnet and its appended couplet. The only substantial variants occur in its first verse, where Shakspere's "But," which connects v. 5 with the preceding quatrain, is omitted; in its second verse, where "light flame" appears for Shakspere's "lights flame"; and in its tenth verse, where "by ye world & thee" stands for Shakspere's "by the graue and thee."

In regard to this collection, the first thing to ascertain is whether it really belongs to the middle of the seventeenth century, as its handwriting would indicate, or is a later imitation of seventeenth-century handwriting. Unfortunately, such things are, and have come over the text of Shakspere as more than a summer cloud. The second is the value of its readings: are they representative of one of those collections of Shakspere's "sugared sonnets for his private friends," and thus an independent source for the text, even if corrupt? Or are they based upon one of the printed editions, 1609 or 1640? The brief selections on Mr. Dobell's page point suspiciously to the edition of 1640: "hungry breath" for the "hunny breath" of 1609 is one of the readings of the 1640 edition. The MS. likewise shows the tendency to give to particular sonnets, or groupings of sonnets, short titles which appear in the 1640 edition. There "A Living Monument" is the short title given to Sonnet LXV. "Love's Cruelty," which introduces Sonnets I, II, and III in edition 1640, is suspiciously like the "Cruel" in this collection.

However these questions may be solved, the MS. Mr. Dobell offers is exceedingly interesting and valuable, and we trust the price he sets on it will not keep it from coming to America. But, wherever it goes, let us hope that it will not share the fate of many such collections, and get into the hands of some rich literary eunuch who will guard it from publication. We want to know all we can about the text of the Sonnets, which were evidently printed by Thorpe in 1609 from an unusually correct MS. copy, yet have not the authority of Shakspere's own recensions. It would be worth the price asked to have the single perplexing printer's error in CXLVI—

"Poore soule, the center of my sinfull earth,
My sinful earth these rebbell powres that thee array,"

illumined by even such a farthing rushlight as a MS. like this might furnish.

M. H. L.

June 21, 1902.

Notes.

Lists of the chief errata, as to facts and dates, in the 'Dictionary of National Biography' are soon to be published in consummation of that great work. Corrections (on these lines only) are requested to be sent without delay, addressed to the Dictionary at No. 15 Waterloo Place, S. W., London.

Messrs. Dent & Co. of London have in preparation and will publish in the autumn a collection of letters by Mr. H. J. Ross, a friend of Sir A. H. Layard, whom he helped to unearth Nineveh. His recollections will be of interest to American readers, as, among other things, are mentioned the relations of the American missionaries with the Nestorian Christians prior to the great massacre of 1843 by Bedr Khan Bey (the Full Moon [of religion]), chief and lord of Bukhtan, and his relative Nurullah Bey (the Light of God), chieftain of the Hakkary. At the close of the Crimean war, Mr. Ross was asked by the Government to undertake the sale of the large number of animals collected in Asia Minor and Turkish Arabia for the projected British campaign in Georgia, and he marched across the Taurus and the Anti-Taurus, from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean, at the head of a convoy extending for many miles. Pictures of a life now no longer existing in the East abound in these pages, which see the light after more than half a century.

The first volume of Dr. Charles Waldstein's 'The Argive Heræum' is now printing (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), and subscribers may expect their copies at latest early in July. Much of the second volume is in type, and it may see the light before the close of the present year. Subscriptions (at $15 and $30 per volume, according to the binding) should be sent to Prof. J. R. Wheeler, Columbia University.

Autumn announcements of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are T. W. Higginson's Life of Longfellow; a new volume of short stories by Thomas Bailey Aldrich; and a summary history of the Louisiana Purchase, by Dr. James K. Hosmer.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish in a few days 'The Home Aquarium,' by Eugene Smith.

Few men of letters have been held in higher personal esteem than the late Charles Dudley Warner. He was as genial a companion as any of the Bohemians; but his character was so pure and his ideals so high as to give him unusual claims to respect and admiration. The posthumous collection of essays and addresses entitled 'Fashions in Literature' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is to be regarded as a memorial, and the variety of the author's interests is shown by the table of contents. There are literary studies, biographical essays, and addresses on the education of the negro, copyright, the indeterminate sentence, etc. Throughout them is diffused a sense of humor which relieves the strain of seriousness, and wins for the author the good will of his readers. They are even more distinguished by generous and elevated feeling and by good sense. The judgments pronounced are of permanent value; many of them are applicable to the problems of to-day. It would be easy to fill pages with quotations which will not lose their point during this century, at least; but the book should be owned by all who take a serious interest in the welfare of our country. It illustrates true patriotism in a manner which is charming as well as impressive, and softens our regret that the voice of the author is now silent with the reflection that his written words abide with us.

Mr. Edward P. Van Duzee, Librarian of the Grosvenor Library of Buffalo, N. Y., has compiled a Catalogue of Poetry in the English Language contained in that collection. The number of volumes and pamphlets recorded is 3,542 and 296 respectively, American somewhat preponderating over English. The list is classified, and will have its uses, though not the greatest, as there is no index.

Misses Stone and Fickett's 'Trees in Prose and Poetry' (Ginn & Co.) will serve an excellent purpose in the schools by way of supplementary reading. The compilation is not so easy as one might suppose. Lowell has proved a good quarry, and is here represented by his "Rhœcus," his "Birch Tree," and other appropriate selections. Bryant, George S. Burleigh, Whittier, Longfellow, are also on hand; and George P. Morris's "Woodman, spare that tree," might have been retained beside its Campbell parallel. Here is also much from Wordsworth, with Spenser, Tennyson, Hood, and Rossetti; nor is Heine's "Pine and Palm" wanting. There are pretty and instructive photographic views of trees.

We have received from P. S. King & Son, London, the second part of 'Smith's Index to the Leading Articles of the *Times*,' for the five years ending December 31, 1900. The first dealt with Names, the present deals with Places, geographically classified; and Sources and Subjects (logically classified) will furnish material for two concluding parts. This index may be of future service to the historian; a present use will be to enable the *Times's* "esteemed contemporaries" to compare its sentiments from year to year. It would seem as if some members of Parliament had constructed a private Chamberlain index for a like purpose.

The third edition of Paul Deussen's 'Die Elemente der Metaphysik,' just issued by F. A. Brockhaus in Leipzig, has been somewhat enlarged by the addition of an introductory essay "Ueber das Wesen des Idealismus," in which the author endeavors to show that the idealism of Kant, as supplemented by that of Schopenhauer, does not differ essentially from the ideas contained in the Upanishads of the Veda, the Dialogues of Plato, and the New Testament. Dr. Deussen is professor of philosophy in the University of Kiel, and the present volume is, in fact, a compend and conspectus of his academical lectures, intended primarily to serve as a guide to young men in this department of study. The work is encyclopædic in its character and scope, embracing a wide range of topics—physics, metaphysics, æsthetics, and ethics—which are discussed from various points of view, but always with reference to a common central principle underlying all phenomenal existence and constituting the fundamental element in mind, namely, the Will.

The second volume of Dr. Franz von Liszt's and Dr. Georg Crusen's 'Die Strafgesetzgebung der Gegenwart' (Berlin: Otto Liebmann) treats of penal legislation in non-European countries. Especially interesting and instructive is the account given of the penal codes of the South American states, of which that of the Republic of Ecuador presents the most surprising, indeed, scarcely credible, features of Jesuit government.

The Massachusetts Historical Society's

*Altered from or to "content" in same hand and ink. †Altered from or to "besiedg" in same hand and ink. ‡So also in Quarto of 1609; the form is common in Elizabethan English, and corresponds to Modern English "tattered."

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

fourteenth volume (new series) of Proceedings contains the record of meetings from March, 1901, to February, 1902, as well as several papers of interest and value. Among these are Worthington C. Ford's account of the genesis of the Monroe Doctrine, Charles Francis Adams's communication on John Quincy Adams and martial law, and James F. Rhodes's paper entitled "Who Burned Columbia?" Other contributions are two narratives of Sir William Phips's expedition against Canada in 1690, communicated by Samuel A. Green, and a collection of letters from Joseph Jones of Virginia to President Madison. A selection from the "Story Papers" contains letters of Justice Story, Webster, Everett, the Sumners, and others. There are biographical notices of Edward Griffin Porter, by Morton Dexter; of William Henry Whitmore, by William S. Appleton; of Augustus Lowell, by Thornton K. Lothrop; of Lucius Robinson Paige, by Henry F. Jenks; of Samuel Foster McCleary, by James M. Bugbee; of Robert Noxon Toppan, by Andrew McF. Davis; and of William Crowninshield Endicott, by his son and namesake—each accompanied by a portrait. A memoir of William Wetmore Story, by Charles Eliot Norton, and informal tributes to the memory of the Bishop of Oxford, John Fiske, Herbert B. Adams, Horace E. Scudder, and other deceased members are reported in full. A tardy appreciation of the late John Ward Dean appears in some remarks by William S. Appleton, who recognizes in him "perhaps the foremost antiquarian in these parts since the death of James Savage." He adds, "He ought to have been a member of this Society twenty years ago, and I hope and think that I am not the only one who regrets that his name is not on our roll."

Mr. George Ernest Bowman, Secretary of the Massachusetts Society of *Mayflower* Descendants, makes a remarkable showing for the success of this organization, in every respect, in his sixth report printed in the (retarded) January number of the *Mayflower Descendant* (Boston, 623 Tremont Building). One of the laborious undertakings is a card catalogue "of all persons, in every generation, whose descent from a *Mayflower* passenger we have verified by original records." This is going to be the great avenue to speedy settlement of every query regarding a suspected descent. All search of the records in any part of the Old Colony can be best conducted through the Society, for a fee which endows its Colonial Research Fund. Besides the card catalogue referred to, another is in progress of names and addresses of all persons now living who claim *Mayflower* descent; and a third takes in Unidentified Wives and Marriageable Women (limited strictly to families of Plymouth, Barnstable, and Bristol Counties). A table of members of the Society on page 45 shows John Alden's descendants in the ascendant (181), followed by Brewster's (172), Warren's (158), and Howland's (133). The frontispiece is a facsimile of Gov. Edward Winslow's will.

The Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Hole announces the resumption of the publication of the *Biological Bulletin*. It will contain original contributions on zoology, general biology, and physiology, reviews, and reports of work and lectures at the Laboratory, especially preliminary statements of important results. It will be open to contributions from any source, and is expected to fill, in America, the place occupied by the *Biologisches Centralblatt* and the *Anatomischer Anzeiger* in Germany by meeting the demand for the immediate publication of results.

The thirty-third annual report of the Cleveland Public Library Board is remarkable, possibly unique, in relating the construction and occupancy of a substantial and sightly building designed for temporary use pending the erection of a final home for the Library in connection with other civic buildings on an æsthetic scheme. The outlay for this transient receptacle will not exceed that for rented annexes had the old quarters been retained. We notice that in the children's department all books are bought on approval, "and in most cases read through before adding to the Library."

The journey through the Sudan east of the upper Nile to the Uganda Railway, which Major H. H. Austin describes in the *Geographical Journal* for June, was one of great hardship. Vast swamps alternated with desert tracts, where it was well-nigh impossible to get food or water. Near Lake Rudolf, several of the soldiers and porters were killed by the hostile natives. Much of the country passed through was fertile, but practically uninhabited, and big game abounded. "On several occasions we saw herds of magnificent elephants, and on two separate days were compelled to halt the whole caravan in order to allow these majestic brutes to cross our path in front of us." The object of the journey is not stated, but it is not impossible that the country eventually may be opened up by a railway, to whose construction, it is said, there are "no engineering difficulties." Among the remaining contents is a description, by Mr. W. B. Parsons, of the waterways and land routes between the Yang-tse and Canton. The most important of these in ancient times was the central route which crossed the mountains by a paved highway of unknown age. The traffic was so great that for thirty miles it is "lined with inns, shops, and stables almost continuously." Mr. Parsons is one of the very few foreigners who have been permitted to traverse Hu-nan, the most anti-foreign of Chinese provinces. He was even allowed to enter the capital, where he found shops generously supplied with all kinds of goods, native and foreign, including English medicines and American tinned vegetables and fruits.

The interest excited by our recent article on a museum of art photography, which we were prompted to write by Sir Martin Conway's discussion of the subject in his 'Domain of Art,' warrants our referring our readers to Sir Martin's letter regarding an exhibition of photographs at Liverpool in April, 1887 (see the *Nation* of May 5 in that year). His idea is at least as old as that. We learn, from a recent letter, that he has just examined at Berlin the remarkable Schweitzer collection of art reproductions in photography historically arranged—30,000 or more in number. "The fundamental necessities are," he adds, "approximate uniformity of size and relative smallness; also *thin* mounts, and facility for changing the order of the plates."

—Again we must record the death of a long-time contributor and warm friend of the *Nation*, in the very midst of his cheerful service. Mr. Dean Sage of Albany, who died suddenly on Monday, at his summer camp on the Ristigouche River, was a son of the late Henry W. Sage, the great benefactor of Cornell University, and himself in turn a liberal giver to that institution. While he had been prepared for college, he passed directly to the Albany Law School, and was admitted upon graduation to the bar; but this was by way of fitting himself for large business enterprises. He was a man of frank and generous disposition, impulsive and courageous in action, abounding in deeds of human kindness, fond of outdoor life, yet equally fond of books. Of these, in his special line of angling, he amassed a remarkable collection, which he increased some years ago with a sumptuous volume of his own on 'The Ristigouche and its Salmon-fishing,' and quite recently with half of the volume on Salmon and Trout confided to his care by Mr. Caspar Whitney. He had exceptional descriptive powers, and humor was the salt of his life. One of the traits which his invincible modesty concealed from the many was a genuine poetic gift, in consonance with his love of wild nature. He was sixty-one years of age, and will be greatly missed on both sides of the Atlantic.

—The July *Century* discusses two topics of prime interest to our future development, the Volcano Systems of the Western Hemisphere, and the Problem of Irrigation. The former of these topics is treated by Robert T. Hill of the Geological Survey, who was among the first to study on the ground the recent outburst of Mont Pelée. Five distinct regions of present volcanic activity are recognized on the Western hemisphere—the Andean group, of equatorial South America; the chain of cinder cones crossing the southern end of the Mexican plateau; the Central American group, on the Pacific side of Guatemala, San Salvador, and Costa Rica; the Windward Islands group, which has lately given so painful an interest to the whole subject, and the volcanoes of Alaska and the Aleutian Islands. It need hardly be said that Mr. Hill's diagrams and statements fully justify those who have so effectively used the volcanic argument against the Nicaraguan Canal route. Men whose knowledge of geography dates from the day of Humboldt's supremacy will note with interest Mr. Hill's demonstration that the supposed backbone of mountains extending north and south throughout the hemisphere does not exist, since the Andean system terminates in northern Colombia, and the Rocky Mountain system in the plateau south of the City of Mexico. The intervening system, for which the name Antillean is suggested, is different in origin, and lies directly across the trend of the great northern and southern systems. It will be a surprise to most readers to learn from Mr. Baker's paper on Irrigation that more than half the world's crops to-day are raised by means of an artificial water supply. The contrast between the desert as it is and the desert as it may be made where water is accessible, is strikingly shown by a description of the conditions in the famous Salt River valley of Arizona, where a few hundred miles of ditching, at a cost of about $3,000,000, has permitted the development of property valued at $30,000,000, and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

sustaining a population of 25,000. Mr. Baker's paper gains interest from its appearance just as Congress has definitively committed the country to a policy of irrigation at the national expense.

—It is interesting to learn from the Editor's Study, in the July *Harper's*, that a magazine must have *organic unity*, both in the individual number and in the succession of numbers. The interest in this comes from the fact that, among American magazines of standing, *Harper's* goes to the extreme in the number and range of subjects crowded within a given number of pages. The title-page entries of the current issue number thirty-one, and the average space allotted to each entry is slightly over five pages, only a little more than half the average length of the fourteen items in the make-up of the current *Scribner's*. Evidently, the editor prefers to attack his problem of organic unity in its most difficult form, and it is doubtful whether many readers will feel that he has secured a complete solution. The lover of literary and linguistic studies will find much to his liking in Edmund Gosse's paper on "Elizabethan Dedications of Books," Professor Woodberry's discussion of the "Beginnings of American Literature," Professor Kittredge's remarks on the "Ways of Words in English Speech," and Mr. Howells's genial talk on "literary revivals," drawn forth by the rumored immanence of a Dickens renaissance. It is pleasing to be assured by Professor Woodberry that our colonial forbears were decidedly not an unliterary people, however scant their literary production; it is good to find Professor Kittredge holding the scales fairly on the level of a healthful and normal linguistic growth, as against purism on the one hand and lawlessness on the other; and, without regard to literary classification, we may unite with Mr. Howells in welcoming a revival of Dickens, if his essentially democratic and sympathetic spirit shall exert its legitimate influence "at a time when our earlier and nobler ideals of nationality seem to be endangered." But will the same type of reader peruse with a feeling of organic connection what Professor Newcomb has to say of the current activities of astronomers, or Mr. Overton W. Price's intensely practical discussion of the economic management and preservation of private forests? We fear that the editor will be able to prove the organic unity of his monthly budget only to a type of mind which the present-day specialism tends to render extinct.

—One could not wish more delightful summer reading than the July *Scribner's* presents in Will H. Low's account of his recent work "In an Old French Garden." If it were every artist's lot to immure himself for nine months of the year within the spacious, tastefully planned, and well-kept gardens of an old French estate, and ply his art surrounded by a few congenial spirits, alike enough in general aims to secure a common interest and yet sufficiently different in methods to lend spice to discussion and avert stagnation, few of us would not thank the Fates if they should put such a lot in our way. The text is accompanied by thirteen illustrations from Mr. Low's own paintings, each one representing some feature of the grounds described. William A. Coffin, in a letter to Mr. Sturgis, gives a general view of "Twenty-five Years of American Art." It is decidedly hopeful in tone. Public exhibitions, from Paris in 1878 to Buffalo in 1901, have shown constant and rapid progress, and American artists are more loyally supported by their own people, in his opinion, than those of any other country. And yet there are disadvantages. The hurry and restlessness of American life, shown in the excessive number of art exhibitions as in so many other ways, is not favorable to the pursuit of the artist's profession; our landscape painting is below the highest attainable standards in dignity and style; the virility produced by firm, strong drawing is lost in the desire for decorative effect; too often the painter has not the patience, perseverance, and grit to carry his work on through the various stages to completeness; there is too little sincere effort to secure in portrait work the nobility and beauty of such painters as Titian, Velasquez, and Rembrandt; and a misplaced *kindness in criticism tends too much to* encourage the weak to persist in their weakness. The reader whose interest carries him out into the wilds at this season of the year will not want to miss Arthur Heming's description of the run of the Abitibi Fur Brigade, the last remnant of the many extended canoe lines by which the Hudson's Bay Company was wont to gather in its annual harvest.

—'Among the Water Fowl,' by Herbert K. Job (Doubleday, Page & Co.), a pleasant narrative of the writer's experiences in the haunts of the larger water birds, contains much original and valuable material concerning the habits of these little-studied species. No author has been more familiar with their nesting habits. Mr. Job uses the camera instead of the gun and the scalpel, and he illustrates his text by a remarkable collection of excellent photographs. He has been afield in New England, the Dakotas, and Minnesota, and has visited the famous bird rock in the St. Lawrence, where nesting murres, kittewakes, and gannets line the ledges. In a shallow, grassy lake of North Dakota he found a nesting colony of more than 5,000 Franklin's gulls. The chapter describing this and other gull settlements will probably have most interest for the general reader. A chapter on grebes, which, from "their fish relations and habits of submergence," he calls the "Submerged Tenth," is also worth noting. "Here were the slums of a larger Grebe city than I had seen before. . . . As we looked off, we saw, some distance away, hosts of other grebes sitting or standing upon their floating nests. . . . Reaching the place, we found that a lane of water ('Broadway,' I called it) divided the city into an east and west side. On the 'east side,' along the edge of a tract of grass, the nests were crowded, four or five deep, for some distance. . . . Conditions here, as might be expected, were simply scandalous. Eggs lay rotting in the watery streets, in one spot as many as fifteen together; the result, probably, either of a storm or a squabble. Débris of all sorts was strewn around with utter indifference to the public health." The chapter most interesting to the ornithologist is on ducks and geese. Mr. Job writes of finding the nests and eggs of nineteen species of ducks, and the young of another—an experience that few students have surpassed.

—The constantly growing interest in physical geography, and the recognition of its educational value when scientifically presented, have been shown by the appearance of eight or nine new text-books on that subject in the past six years. The most recent of these is an 'Elementary Physical Geography' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), by Prof. William M. Davis of Harvard University, who has long been an admitted leader in the modern scientific development of the subject. It is chiefly, but not entirely, an abridgment of a larger and successful text-book by the same author, published four years ago. The treatment of the atmosphere, however, has been somewhat amplified, and there is a new chapter on "The Distribution of Plants, Animals, and Man"—additions which will certainly commend themselves to teachers. "Rational treatment" is the keynote to this book, as it was to its predecessor. "The ideas of cause and of consequence—one preceding, the other following, the physiographic fact—have been held constantly in mind by the author"; but he has wisely discerned that there are certain facts of great importance, *i. e.*, the rotation of the earth, the tides, etc., whose causes are not susceptible of elementary statement. Such facts must be described and their consequences considered while their causes are but lightly touched upon. In his compromises between complicated explanation and elementary statement, the author has been very successful. Certain subjects commonly given in similar books are omitted, because, as stated by the author, "elementary text-books should not present an encyclopædic richness." The numerous, well-selected illustrations, particularly those of land forms, are many of them original with Mr. Davis, and add greatly to the value of the book. Taken all in all, this seems the most satisfactory elementary text-book in physical geography yet published. Certainly in its treatment of the land it has not been surpassed, unless, perhaps, by the author's larger work, already referred to.

—Two learned societies at Oxford have recently been favored by reports of recent explorations in the Mediterranean basin. The Oxford Philological Society had a most notable account from Mr. Arthur Evans of the bearing of this year's discoveries upon the understanding of the strange Minoan characters found in such abundance in the "House of the Double-Axe" at Knossos. He exhibited facsimiles of three clay tablets found this year, upon each of which were three or four numbers the sum total of which (though the numbers varied) amounted in each case to 100; this plainly showed the inscriptions to have to do with percentages. Thanks to the rare enterprise of the Clarendon Press, Mr. Evans was able to exhibit to the society a large sheet of "Types for Prehistoric Script (Evans)," with a Synopsis of the "One-nick Two-line Pica fount" and of the "One-nick Great Primer fount." In producing these two founts, 203 characters (at first roughly outlined by Mr. Evans) were symmetrically redrawn and reduced by photography at the University Press. A line-block, made for each size, was then electrotyped, type-faces were cut out singly, and mounted on type-bodies,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and, from these, electrotype matrices were produced. Mr. Evans also exhibited to the Society a process-block reproduction in black and white line-drawing of the largest of the clay tablets upon which is the longest inscription yet found at Knossos; it was unearthed this year. At the end of two of the 25-odd lines of this inscription occur the signs for two numbers, 31 and 23, each being preceded by the "man" sign. Before this sign stand in each case the same three characters, the meaning of which must be "total," as there are plainly 31 units marked on the lines preceding the "total 'man' 31," and 23 units plainly recorded on the lines preceding "total 'man' 23." This is one of the ways in which some progress towards decipherment has already been made. Mr. Evans related another case in point. Having noticed in a museum of the Levant three specimens of the clay tablets found at Knossos, which he was confident ought to have been among the treasures handed over by him to the Museum at Candia, he scrutinized them carefully, and, by certain marks upon them (horizontal scores), he identified them as found in a definite magazine of the "House of the Double-Axe" where he had employed a workman, since discharged. These observations resulted in a term of imprisonment for the workman, who was, at the moment he was speaking, still "in durance vile"—thanks to the careful housekeeping of old King Minos, no less carefully interpreted by the modern discoverer of his storage-records.

—Mr. Evans pronounced the scores by which these abstracted tablets had been identified along with their "abstractor," to be hardly distinguishable from those on the component parts of a beautiful bracelet (of gold, lapislazuli, and turquoise) which Professor Flinders Petrie had shown two nights before in a lecture on the beginnings of Egyptian history given before the Oxford Architectural Society. By carefully noting the scores, Professor Petrie had been enabled to group them together as the almost prehistoric goldsmith required, and the beauty and symmetry of the resulting design were surely the method's best justification. The bracelet in question was unearthed in a tomb which had already been dealt with by M. Amélinau. Indeed, Professor Petrie and the Egypt Exploration Fund are certainly to be congratulated on the treasures discovered where recent researches were supposed to have left nothing to be found. Perhaps the most remarkable among Professor Petrie's new revelations was one which exemplifies the scientific perfectibility of archæological research, when its methods are constantly readjusted by one possessing the necessary experience and insight. Having to deal, during his campaign just closed, with a site which contained, in successive layers, the remains, easily distinguished, of successive kings of the First Egyptian Dynasty, and also, below all these, the remains of several continuous, prehistoric periods, Professor Petrie hit upon the leading idea of minutely classifying, by means of a card-catalogue, the whole mass of pottery belonging to all these successive layers. Having spared none of the minutest pains imaginable in his classification of successive forms, our discoverer then tabulated his results, and, by skilful grouping, obtained a sort of chronology by which the development in the manner of fashioning pots can be followed from beginnings far earlier than the Herodotean Menes down through successive prehistoric strata into the continuous line of the kings of the First Dynasty. A moment's reflection will show how invaluable such a careful scheme of "fictile" progression must be, as giving an independent hold upon early Egyptian chronology. In fact, Professor Petrie called attention to the interesting circumstance that he had already derived, from the materials thus classified, a striking confirmation of the too often rashly impugned chronology of early Egyptian history as handed down to us by Manetho. Now, less than ever, can it be maintained that Manetho's dynasties of Egypt were not, as he represents them, continuous and successive.

BARTON'S SEMITIC ORIGINS.

A Sketch of Semitic Origins, Social and Religious. By G. A. Barton, A.M., Ph.D., Associate Professor of Biblical Literature and Semitic Languages in Bryn Mawr College. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. xiv, 342.

In the preface to this book, Professor Barton confesses, ingenuously enough, that to many Semitists his undertaking will certainly appear premature, and a satisfactory solution of his problem impossible. But he also records his conviction that his studies have led him "to the discovery of the path trodden by the Semites in the journey from savagery to civilization." This is a large claim, and doubters will be many. The lamented Robertson Smith published, in a single monumental volume, lectures which he regarded as covering less than one-third of the scope of Professor Barton's book, and did not claim in these to have described a key which would open all the locks. He was a consummate scholar and the master of a perfectly balanced mind, and so, though we now know that his sociological authorities had in part misled him, his work remains and need never be done again. How it will be with Professor Barton's it is cheap guessing. To the present reviewer, his results should have appeared in the tentative form of articles in the transactions of some society, and been limited closely to a study of the Ishtar cult.

But the book is here, and some estimate of it must be attempted. It begins with the beginning of things in a chapter of investigation as to the cradle of the Semites. That is placed in North Africa, where the Hamites and Semites formed one people; no attempt is made to define that elusive term Hamite. From Africa the Semites, now separate from the Hamites, passed to Arabia and thence dispersed. The view is thus the ordinary Afro-Arabian one. The treatment of the subject is second-hand to a degree; Dr. Barton, indeed, makes no claim to authority either in ethnology or in Egyptology. The decision, therefore, with which he rejects the opinions of Erman and other Egyptologists of the first rank on Egyptian language and history is remarkable enough. The whole chapter is uncalled for, is premature, and unnecessary to his book. His thesis could begin, and, so far as his first-hand contributions are concerned, should have begun, with the Semites in Arabia.

That thesis may be put shortly as follows: We must presuppose a primitive stage among the Semites when they were formed into totemistic clans; the marriage relationship was vague and uncertain, and lasted, at best, for a very short term—practically beena marriages; descent was reckoned through women, who remained with their own kindred; there was no conception of chastity, rather a reverence for the powers and means of reproduction; women thus had positions of considerable independence and authority. From this developed, in one direction, a Nair type of polyandry of which comparatively slight traces have survived, and, on another, of Thibetan polyandry through the formation of the more daring and enterprising into warlike and trading clans. These went out from the oases, plundered, traded, and captured women, and passed in time from polyandry into polygamy. With the change came male kinship, a declension in the position of women, and the baal conception of marriage which was finally fixed in Islam. Further, Dr. Barton holds that even in the most primitive Arabia the pastoral and semi-agricultural stage had been reached with especial cultivation of the date-palm. This, it will be noticed, is a modification of Robertson Smith's view rendered necessary by the present change of attitude towards McLennan's hard-and-fast sociological law which laid down a regular development from promiscuity through polyandry to polygamy. Against the simple matriarchate, Dr. Barton lays stress on primitive beena marriages, slackened by frequency of divorce and a light attitude towards chastity, or, rather, a putting of unchastity, as an expression of fertility, under religious sanctions. We thus pass from Dr. Barton's sociological to his religious hypothesis.

The absolute beginnings of Semitic religion he does not attempt, but contents himself with the probability "that among them religion did not originate in ancestor-worship." The point round which his interest centres is the goddess Ishtar, for him the most primitive and original figure in the Semitic pantheon, and not an introduction from the non-Semitic world. Her worship is found among all the Semitic peoples, and Dr. Barton regards all Semitic deities which are not introductions from without as transformations or modifications of her. She was a mother-goddess, typifying the earth with its fertility; the patroness of sensuality, of the easily slipped and short-lived marriage tie, and even of absolutely promiscuous sexual intercourse. Originally, she was a water-goddess, the divinity of a never-failing spring, and beside her stood a son, a sacred palm-tree, to which she gave life. The picture is thus of the typical Arabian oasis, a spring in the desert, with a palm dependent upon it. With this connects the myth of Tammuz, who is represented at one time as the son of Ishtar, at another as the first of her series of husbands, and last as the lost husband of her youth. This development in the Semitic myth follows step by step the development in the Semitic family. In the earliest Semitic family, the chief figure would be the mother, and the chief male, her son—the spring and palm-tree. Then Tammuz came to be viewed as a rejected husband "when marriage was still temporary and women quite free, but

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

when the original family relations between Ishtar and Tammuz had been forgotten." In the third form of the myth is a reflection of the later, more permanent, marriage bond. All this certainly might be a great deal clearer and is far from final, but, as a working hypothesis, there is much to be said for it. The source of all Semitic religions, according to it, is found in one form or other of the sexual principle. The male and female date-palm, fecundated by the wind, struck the sexually minded Semite as an exhibition of divine approval. A spring was to him the veritable water of life. Circumcision was a consecration of the same principle. The miscellaneous sexual intercourse practised under divine sanction at so many shrines, especially the solemn sacrifice of virginity, of which we have record here and there in the Semitic world, is a survival from the old times with their primitive ideas of worship and of the divine. Religious conservatism here perpetuated practices which the feeling of the race had otherwise gradually rejected.

From this goddess Ishtar, then, by development, change, and combination came the other Semitic deities. As the tribes became more warlike and needed warlike leaders, as the system of male kinship developed, Ishtar tended to pass from a goddess into a god. Sometimes she survived independently in the middle of a pantheon that had grown up out of herself. So in Babylon; yet there Ishtar was a goddess of war quite as much as of love. At other times she remained as a consort of a male deity also developed from herself. These transformations Dr. Barton works out with great minuteness, and really produces a very considerable amount of evidence in their support. But into the details it would be out of place to enter here. It may be said in short (1) that he is too much inclined to support his hypotheses with other hypotheses and to go far afield for ethnological parallels. Thus, he finds the Sumerian hypothesis a useful means of explaining gods in Babylonia which he cannot reduce back to Ishtar, and supports his whole thesis on a comparison with the Aztec development, and (2) that he has apparently no idea of the variety of forces that were at work, producing and modifying early religious ideas. A chapter on survivals of the Ishtar cult goes even further in these directions, and reminds vividly of the dexterity and ingenuity of the more strenuous supporters of the sometime solar myth. But a goddess who can turn herself at any time into any of her own husbands or all of them or into her own son, remaining or not herself at the same time, has evidently Protean possibilities far ahead of any that the Sun ever enjoyed even in its most high and palmy state. The thing at times approaches closely to a *reductio ad absurdum*.

But the crowning triumph comes in the seventh chapter, and Jezebel and Elijah, had they but had the advantage of Dr. Barton's researches, might have made peace together, for their Yahwé himself is found to be simply another transformation of Ishtar, and therefore the same, at a few removes, as the Ashtart of Tyre. It is all very simple. The Kenite hypothesis carries Yahwé back to an Arabian tribal god. But that god, *ex hypothesi*, had been transformed from the mother-goddess, therefore, etc. Support is found in many things, circumcision, oath formulæ, the passover, and the characteristic phrase, "the *ashtaroth* of the flock," all the palm trees which have got into the Old Testament, and some trees which are not palms, the name Yahwé itself, Dr. Barton's view of the origin of which is much more original than he seems to think. Finally come a few pages on the later development of the religion of the Hebrews, and a sketchy and uncalled-for chapter in estimate of the influence, social and religious, of the Semites on the non-Semitic world. With the prophets and still more with Jesus any thought of a development is frankly abandoned. Their attitude and teaching are posited as utterly unaccounted for by their environment; practically the Hebrew revelation—and for Dr. Barton it was a revelation—began with them and not with Moses. This is a more thorough cutting of the knot than usual, and it is improbable that it will find favor either with revelationists or evolutionists.

It must be confessed that the impression produced by this book as a whole is not a satisfactory one. Admittedly Dr. Barton is not a specialist in ethnography, sociology, or Egyptian, but he acts very much as though he were, and picks out of books the points which fit his speculations, until the Ishtar cult, on which he may fairly claim to have specialized, runs risk of being obscured by the things meant to support it. Primitive sociology is still in far too uncertain a state to render safe such a course as this. With a little reading in current sociological hand-books, almost any hypothesis might be triumphantly established. Again, Dr. Barton's tone towards those who may not or do not agree with him might often be better. Such remarks as those at the top of page 306, the condescending attitude towards Driver on page 103, the worse than condescending towards Robertson on page 275, the comment at page 38 on those Egyptologists who do not admit totemism in Egypt—all these things are not in place. Again, for a low standard in scholarship we were prepared by the most unhappy Syriac and Arabic texts and translations in Dr. Barton's two papers in *Hebraica*, vols. ix. and x., but it might fairly be pleaded that these *bévues* date from eight years ago. On page 11 of this volume, however, we discover that his German, and on page 246 that his Greek, are equally shaky. Nor is the repeated occurrence of Qa'aba for Ka'ba calculated to restore confidence in his Arabic. His etymologies, too, on the Hebrew and Arabic side, are apt to be unfortunate. Thus, *Yahwé* as a hiphil may mean "he causes to come about, or happen"; it cannot mean "he gives life." The difference between the roots *haya* and *haya* is very marked; as great as between *werden* and *leben*. If Dr. Barton wishes to make a connection between Yahwé and the fundamental conception in the Ishtar myth, his course is plain through Arabic; the Kenites, *ex hypothesi*, spoke some form of Arabic. *Hawiya*, 'he loved passionately, desired,' is excellent Arabic, and as good a derivative for Yahwé as most of those that have been proposed. Again, Dr. Barton's etymology of Ishtar will hardly stand; it would have been better if he had remained by Robertson Smith's cautious statement. The Hebrew *'ashar* and Aramaic *'athar* do not connect with the Arabic *'athara*, but with *ghathara*. Further, the meaning of the Arabic *'athara* cannot be uncertain; it occurs in too various and different phrases. It means 'to trip over, to stumble over, or into'; from it *'āthūr* can be immediately derived as a pit dug for a trap, thence a deep trench either worn by a torrent or dug for irrigation. Whether *'athari* (or *'aththari*) is derived from the name *'Athtar* is a different question. The Arabic lexicographers (*Lisān*, vi., p. 215) assert that the tree is so called because it "stumbles on" the water necessary to it, and does not need to be irrigated. This may seem to us far-fetched, but it is dangerous to dogmatize on the connections of thought in the Arab mind. The subject which Dr. Barton, following Robertson Smith, has opened up is wide and difficult, but if he will read carefully the related passages in the *Lisān* (vi.. 214 ff.; xiii., 59 ff.; xix., 271)—Lane is not sufficient—he will learn a great deal of Arabic and other things besides. He appears to be of the school, too well represented among Orientalists, which lays more stress upon striking and original hypotheses than upon respect for grammar and lexicon. His power in suggestion and fruitful hypothesis is certain; we would entreat him not to cripple and discredit himself by such looseness of scholarship as this volume displays.

THE HISTORY AND LITERATURE OF EDUCATION.

Books on Education in the Libraries of Columbia University. (Library Bulletins No. 2.) New York. 1901. Pp. 435.

Source Book of the History of Education for the Greek and Roman Period. By Paul Monroe. The Macmillan Co. 1901. Pp. 515.

The Training of Teachers and Methods of Instruction. Selected Papers by S. S. Laurie, A.M., LL.D., Professor of the Institutes and History of Education, University of Edinburgh. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1901. Pp. 295.

The Columbia catalogue of educational literature contains more than 13,500 titles, classified and indexed. It is, on the whole, a collection of very important literature, and shows the wide field with which the modern student of education must be familiar. Setting aside the conventional rubrics under which the books are classified, an analysis of the contents will be instructive. First is the large collection of literature containing facts—books on the history of education, present systems, the education of defectives, the training of teachers, methods of instruction, and the like. Second, the literature relating to development and physical health—child study, hygiene, and physical training. Third, the literature relating to the wider aspects of education—education and the church, education and the state, education and sociology, etc. Fourth, the works of the classic writers on education, containing the educational doctrines of the past and the ideals of the great schoolmasters—Plato, Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Herbart. And, finally, a miscellaneous collection of literature relating to principles of education, the theory and practice of teaching, current problems, and the like.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Of this last class, probably, it may safely be said that 95 per cent. is of no special value except as showing the content of the pedagogue's mind, for whatever of truth it contains has been better expressed by somebody else, and what is untrue in it lacks even the merit of good fiction. For example, the German literature, which is well represented, consists largely of the restatement of old truth and the verbose discussion of dogmas that have become platitudes. A German writer himself quotes the satirist: "Mother Nature has been good to all; to the French she has given wine, to the Swiss milk, and to the Germans ink." No department of literature has shared more generously in this gift than educational literature; and thus it has come to pass that the only salvation for the student of education is the habit of ignoring most of what has been written upon the subject.

Education represents a universal human interest, but the literature of education is read only by the few. Everybody believes in education, yet few have faith in scientific pedagogy. All agree that education is one of the most vitally important things in a civilized country, and yet to the ordinary reader the history of education is most dry and uninteresting. The reason for this is not far to seek. The histories of education, the descriptions of school systems and of educational movements are for the most part mere catalogues of educational facts concerning school administration and organization, school curricula, special institutions, and technical methods. The wider relations are not seen. It is only when an educational system or an educational movement is studied in its genesis and in its social, political, and industrial relations that it becomes significant and interesting; but the ordinary writer upon education has been so close to the details that he has been quite unable to see these wider relations, to miss which is to miss everything really important, while to record them is to make the history of education one of the most vitally interesting of all subjects. In a word, the history of education and present systems of education should be studied as a part of the history of civilization and of culture, of *Culturgeschichte*. But so little scientific work has been done in this part of the field of education that it is practically impossible to write a satisfactory history. The necessary data are not at hand. The sources and authorities for such a history of education must first be made available.

Meantime, those who would give their students something better than the second-hand material of the ordinary history of pedagogy must send them to original sources. Professor Monroe, in his 'Source-Book,' has made these accessible for the classic period. The student of education, weary of the ambitious attempts to compass the whole history of education in one volume of a few hundred pages, will turn with relief to this writer, who attempts the modest but more important task of bringing together in approved translations the most important educational writings of the ancient Greeks and Romans. In his preface, the author states that he takes the term education in its narrower sense, "in the accepted historic meaning of the term, that of a definitely organized institutional attempt to realize in individuals the ideals controlling a given people"; and he limits his collection to works that bear more directly upon education in this narrower sense. The sources collected are of three classes: (1) those of more general character relating especially to the aims and ideals of education; (2) those which deal with education as the work of a specific institution; (3) the philosophical discussions of education as regards its function and means. Among the Greek writers from whom extracts are made are Thucydides, Aristophanes, Isocrates, Plato, Aristotle, Xenophon, and Plutarch. Among the Roman writers represented are Cicero, Nepos, Suetonius, Tacitus, Marcus Aurelius, Horace, Pliny the younger, Juvenal, and Quintilian. There is a good introduction to each chapter, and the whole constitutes a valuable handbook.

It seems a pity that the author should not have taken a somewhat wider view and devoted the whole volume to Greek sources. This would have made it possible to include other important writings relating to education in the broader sense; and illustrations might have been given of the other sources of historic evidence mentioned by the writer, "such as inscriptions, vase and mural paintings, and other works of art." Especially noteworthy is the omission of some of the important literature upon physical education. Since plays, games, and gymnastic exercises were such an important factor in the education of the Greek youth, the most important writings relating to this subject should have a large place. Homer's account of the great games and contests, and among the later Greeks the special monograph on physical education by Philostratus, as well as the dialogue on gymnastics, "Anacharsis and Solon," by Lucian, should be included. It would be desirable also to illustrate the psychology of the ancient Greeks, the science that lies at the foundation of practical pedagogy. For example, Aristotle's famous Essay upon Memory and Recollection might well find a place, a contribution containing substantially everything known about the psychology of association down to the special psychological studies of the last century.

Professor Laurie's book on 'The Training of Teachers and Methods of Instruction' is a reprint of a dozen or more addresses delivered by him on various occasions during the last twenty-five years. They deal with a wide range of subjects, from "The General Function of the Primary School" to "The University of the Future." Most of these have for some time been out of print. Like the literature referred to above, much of this book is a repetition; but it is necessary to repeat the same old truths to teachers, and Professor Laurie repeats very well. He recasts many of the old platitudes, imprints them with his own personality, brings out new aspects of truth, and withal writes with great discretion. The chapter on university education is important, and the description of the university of the future very interesting, although not quite adequate and convincing. The characteristic marks of this ideal are as follows: the university must embrace the whole tradition of philosophy, science, and learning, and each professor should "advance the bounds of his subject" and contribute his results to the world outside as well as teach "all who may come to him whether they intend to graduate or not." Further, the university must train for all the professions; as a guild of investigators and teachers it must be "a literary republic, self-governing and free." It "must train apprentices and specialists so as to secure the apostolic succession of competent representatives," and graduates should always remain members of the guild and "should be encouraged to return from time to time to find there (without payment) the last results of investigation." And, finally, the sum and consummation of all its teaching is the science of man and the conduct of life. "Literature, art, philosophy, religion—these constitute the true life of man, and they in some form or other enter into the culture of every youth who is to go forth as the legitimate son of the university and not as the bastard child of a specialist school"; but instruction in the practical applications of science which have to do with bodily needs, in contrast with intellectual interests, should be outside the universities, in separate technical colleges. "Degrees are mere accidents of a university," and "every professor and every subject should be accessible to the general public without reference to graduation." Universities in democratic countries must rest on the popular will, and exclusiveness in particular lines of study would be fatal. The University Extension system, however much despised by the monopolists of true culture and in spite of its attendant evils—especially examinations and marks—is a good movement and of old and respectable lineage, having been advocated by Bacon in the 'New Atlantis.' Thus, while conservative in his description of the university of the future, Professor Laurie holds to an ideal distinctly democratic, and he maintains "that the danger to which the university of the future is exposed is interference with liberty of thought and government on the part of the democracy."

The Kindred of the Wild: Book of Animal Life. Charles G. D. Roberts. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 1902.

Despite the presage of his ambiguous title and the rather labored introductory chapter, the reader of Prof. Roberts's book, as he proceeds, cannot avoid the conviction that it is a masterpiece of its kind. An earlier volume by the same hand, 'The Heart of the Ancient Wood,' showed a most intimate and appreciative acquaintance with the habits and motives of the animal life of the woods. This one, which describes the life histories of various wild animals, does so with most extraordinary fidelity and breadth of knowledge. The author makes it evident that he knows whereof he writes, and writes from the fulness of his knowledge and interest, and for a public which can detect such errors of fact and flights of egotistic fancy as embellish the popular narratives of a certain favorite author on wild life and natural history.

The book begins with a story—in fact, all its chapters are stories—entitled, "The Moonlight Trails." These were the paths, regular and irregular, of rabits (hares?) in the snow among the firs, where they were wont to have social gatherings in the winter nights.

"From time to time two of these harmonious shapes would halt, sit upon their hind-quarters, erect their long, attentive

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ears, glance about warily with their bulging eyes (which, in this position, could see behind as well as in front of their narrow heads), wrinkle those deft nostrils which were cunning to differentiate every scent upon the sharp air, and then browse hastily but with a cheerful relish at the spicy shoots of the young yellow birch. Feeding, however, was plainly not their chief purpose. Always within a few moments they would resume their leaping progress through the white glitter and the hard, black shadows. . . . Long ears, twinkling, round eyes softly shining, they leaped lightly hither and thither, pausing every now and then to touch each other with their sensitive noses, or to pound on the snow with their strong hind legs in mock challenge."

The story goes on to tell in what manner these rabbits were trapped, and gives an idea of the cruelty of that process of securing them.

"The Lord of the Air" is a tale of an eagle which, with his mate, had an eyrie on the top of a high mountain peak, from which watch-tower he made forays on the surrounding country for food for himself and his young family. He is thus described:

"His powerful beak, long and scythe-edged, curved over sharply at the end in a rending hook. His eyes, clear, direct, unacquainted with fear, had a certain hardness in their vitreous brilliancy, perhaps by reason of the sharp contrast between the bright gold iris and the unfathomable pupil; and the straight line of the low, overhanging brow gave them a savage intensity of penetration. His neck and tail were of the same snowy whiteness as his snake-like head, while the rest of his body was a deep shadowy brown close kin to black."

There follow most vivid descriptions of the eagle's manner of pursuit and overtaking of the various weaker creatures among which he sought his prey, and of his final capture by an ingenious trick, conceived and carried out by a half-breed. For a few weeks the bird remained in captivity, chained by the leg in an open shed that looked out on the river, whence, "across the forest hills, further than any human eye could see, a dim summit, as it were a faint blue cloud on the horizon, he could perceive—his own lost realm of Sugar Loaf. Hour after hour he would sit upon his rude perch, unstirring, unwinking, and gaze upon this faint blue cloud of his desire." The eagle finally escaped. "The air, as he bounded upward, whistled under his tremendous wing strokes. Up, up he mounted, leaving the men to gape after him flushed and foolish. Then he headed his flight for that faint blue cloud beyond the hills."

There are chapters on the moose, the wild goose, the cougar, the owl, the lynx, and other denizens of the forest and air, and the uniform and sustained excellence of all these cannot fail to excite the reader's admiration, especially of such as share the author's sympathetic feeling for animate Nature, and can realize from intimate contact with her how true an interpreter he is who writes this charming book.

The illustrations, by Charles Livingston Bull, are of varying degrees of merit, some of them being very good, and others failing entirely to express the ideas conveyed in the text. Perhaps those of the beasts of prey are the best. The rabbits (facing page 36) are very bad about the heads, and the drawings of the moose hardly appear to proceed from familiarity with the animal, especially that facing page 104, which resembles a rhinoceros as much as it does anything.

Reminiscences of a Dramatic Critic. By Henry Austin Clapp. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

Mr. Clapp needs no introduction to those interested in the affairs of the American stage. For many years he has been recognized as one of the most trustworthy of theatrical critics, by virtue of his honesty, his good taste and judgment, his familiarity with dramatic history and literature, and his agreeable, discriminating, and expressive style as a writer. Naturally, his reminiscences make pleasant reading, and they are also valuable, especially to the younger generation of playgoers, as the deliberate opinions of a qualified observer of the respective merits of some of the greatest actors of the last thirty years. They do not pretend to be exhaustive—such players as Clara Morris, Lawrence Barrett, and Modjeska, not to speak of Bernhardt and other foreigners, not being mentioned at all; but it is nevertheless significant that they relate almost exclusively to the dead. Few living performers leave impressions upon the memory which are at once indelible and delightful.

As might have been expected, Mr. Clapp regards Boston as the centre of the theatrical world, and the Boston Museum of his youth as the perfect example of what a theatre should be. No one will dispute the brilliancy of that theatre's record during its best years, or its eminence as a temple of the higher kinds of drama. But it is permissible to doubt whether in its palmiest years it could offer such brilliant representations of the older comedy as were contemporaneously provided at Wallack's in New York. It may be admitted, however, that its stage exhibited a greater variety of entertainment, the performances of its admirable stock company being supplemented by those of visiting stars; whereas Wallack's, in those days, depended almost entirely upon its own resources. Again, it is not every old playgoer who will agree unreservedly with Mr. Clapp's somewhat over-enthusiastic estimate of William Warren. Beyond question, Mr. Warren was an actor of very rare parts, thoroughly trained, rich both in humor and in pathos, and uncommonly versatile, particularly in broadly contrasting comic characters; but that he was supreme in characters of the type of *Sir Peter Teazle, Old Dornton, Sir Anthony Absolute, Jesse Rural,* and *Sir Harcourt Courtly,* in which he was most highly esteemed in Boston, will scarcely be admitted by those able to compare his work with that of John Gilbert or William Chippendale. To say that a man who never entered the tragic or romantic field was a Théâtre-Français in himself is surely to be a little extravagant. Certainly, too, Mr. Clapp is in error when he says that J. L. Toole occupied upon the London stage a position analogous to that which Warren filled here. Toole was an actor of farce and burlesque, who never appeared in high comedy, except in some such part as *Moses* in "The School for Scandal," which he caricatured abominably. He had a vein of pathos, to be sure, but it was neither broad nor deep.

Nevertheless, Mr. Clapp is entirely right in quoting William Warren as a notable illustration of the finished actor produced under the old stock-company system and now almost extinct; and his explanation of the effects of that training in Warren's case is so clear and practical that it is rather astonishing to find in him an apparently earnest advocate of the establishment of conservatories for the education of actors, although he admits that much of what is taught in such institutions must be untaught or abandoned before success upon the real stage is possible. The point is not one that can be argued now. Conservatories, if the proper teachers could be found for them, and if they could be prevented from perpetuating all kinds of academic and fanciful traditions, might do some good. They might, at least, instruct our histrionic youth in certain elementary proprieties of speech and behavior. But, so far as the English-speaking stage is concerned, every great actor of the last hundred years has found his equipment and his inspiration in a stock company—the one and only real school of acting.

Mr. Clapp pays a fervent and judicious tribute to the genius and fine character of Edwin Booth, and also to Charlotte Cushman, of whom he justly says that all the other women of the American stage were mere children compared with her. He also comments acutely upon the art and work of Joseph Jefferson. Salvini he deems the greatest master of histrionic expression seen here in fifty years. That the superb Italian undoubtedly was. It is doubtful whether there has been any actor since Garrick to equal him. Mr. Clapp is especially enthusiastic over his *Conrad* in "La Morte Civile"—a masterpiece if ever there was one—his *Sampson,* and his *Sullivan,* but dissents from his reading of *Othello,* while acknowledging its overwhelming power. The controversy is an old one. Grant that the interpretation in its barbaric passion was not in full accord with the best Shaksperian tradition, or, what is more to the purpose, the Anglo-Saxon temperament, it was at any rate magnificent, Oriental, tremendous, and consistent, and maintained an illusion such as no other actor has created since the days of Kean and Cooke. To-day an actor changes his trousers and his moustache, and we call him versatile. Here was a man who shone with equal radiance in the Scriptural drama of Alfieri, the loftiest tragedy of Shakspere, the domestic drama of Giacometti, and in light contemporary comedy.

In an amusing chapter Mr. Clapp endeavors to analyze the character of Sothern's *Dundreary.* How Sothern would have chuckled over this! The part was compact of all kinds of shreds and patches and subject to constant alteration. In London it was one thing, in New York another, and in Boston, very likely, it was something else. On this side of the Atlantic it was always rather more exaggerated than on the other, in order to make the humor of it more obvious. At the London Haymarket it was an easily recognizable caricature, not too gross, of an existent type of foolish dandy. The technical execution of it was always exquisite. Of Fechter Mr. Clapp makes the somewhat startling assertion, founded upon a personal conversation with him, that he thought "whet" in "Whet thy almost blunted purpose," was identical with "wet," and meant that the *Ghost* wanted to "dampen" *Hamlet's* ardor. That the Anglo-German-French actor, left to his own resources, might have blundered thus is a

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

proposition that offers little difficulty; but Fechter was coached in "Hamlet" by J. M. H. Bellew, one of the finest Shaksperian reciters of his own or any other day, and that he should have left him in ignorance on a point so vital is extraordinary. Mr. Clapp says that Fechter did not know the significance of "blunted" either; and this is stranger still.

Some mention should be made of the criticisms on Adelaide Neilson, Janauschek, and Irving, but our notice has already exceeded its limits. Suffice it to say that they are worthy of their subjects. Indeed, the whole book is a capable and welcome addition to the literature of modern drama.

Reminiscences of Sixty Years in Public Affairs. By George S. Boutwell. Two vols. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1902.

The period which Mr. Boutwell's life has covered is in two respects of surpassing interest. Man's command over the forces of nature has been extended so rapidly as to have revolutionized our material civilization. Partly in consequence of this revolution, our system of government has shown signs of changing from a democracy to a plutocracy. With the peaceful transfer of political power from the aristocracy of Massachusetts to the middle classes Mr. Boutwell had much to do. With its forcible transfer in the Southern States he had also much to do. In the process the scope of government was greatly enlarged; the number of those obtaining from it assistance or support enormously increased, and the tendency to utilize it for private gain developed to a startling degree. The Republican party has practically controlled the Government for forty years, and, until war was declared against Spain, all its measures of any consequence had Mr. Boutwell's approval, and many of them were prepared and enacted through his agency. Yet he now finds the Government in the hands of the rich, the politicians largely venal, the colored men in the Southern States deprived of the suffrage, and the leaders of the Republican party sneering at the principles of the Declaration of Independence, and carrying on a bloody war in order to conquer a people struggling for freedom.

How comes it to pass that Mr. Boutwell finds himself now denounced as an apostate and a traitor for maintaining the cause of human rights as he has maintained it from the beginning? He does not directly answer this question; but it is possible to extract the answer from his account of his political career. He was in the first place a Democrat of the Jeffersonian school. Consistently with the principles of that school he was opposed to slavery, and acted with the "Free Soil" Democrats. So soon as the opportunity came, he took part in forming the Republican party, in order to prevent slavery from spreading. Then came secession, and he accepted the issue of war without hesitation. He favored the most radical measures, and held that the Southern States, when the war ended, were simply conquered territory, to be ruled by Congress and made into States at its discretion. He came into violent collision with President Johnson, and labored vigorously for his impeachment. He insisted on disfranchising many of the white men of the South and enfranchising the blacks. He favored the legislation compelling creditors to accept the dishonored promissory notes of the national Government as if they were gold; and he abandoned the principles of free trade and became a devoted protectionist.

The sincerity of Mr. Boutwell's devotion to the Union is unquestionable, and his uprightness not less. He has held office steadily for nearly sixty years, and can say that the offices have sought him and not he them. He was at Washington during a most corrupt period, but the smell of fire did not pass upon him. He has been sincerely devoted to the interests of the negroes and of the common people. He can say of what he has done, "I did it all for the best." That, however, was what Metternich said when he was flying from the ruins of the system that he had constructed. Some day we shall understand that the policy of protection is objectionable not because it is expensive, but because it is corrupting. It is intended to give special governmental favors to certain men and certain interests; the policy being justified by the claim that the prosperity of the favored individuals will conduce to the prosperity of the whole people. Whether this be true or not, it is now evident that the favored classes have become politically powerful, and that they maintain their control by the use of money. This is the natural result of protection, and those who insisted on that policy in the face of experience may now see it culminate in the revival of the colonial systems of former ages. When government is regarded as a dispenser of pecuniary advantage, plutocracy will be the legitimate outgrowth. Much the same may be said of the change in the Constitution attempted by the impeachment of President Johnson and effected by the legal-tender decision. The powers of Congress and of the general Government were greatly enlarged, and the decision of the Supreme Court in the Porto Rico cases was foreshadowed. The present attitude of Mr. Boutwell toward the Imperialist movement is heroic. It must have wrung his soul to turn against the party which he had so devotedly supported; but he had supported it through measures which contained the seeds of the evil crop which now alarms him who heedlessly sowed them.

Probably the most valuable feature of these reminiscences is the terse characterization of the men with whom Mr. Boutwell was brought into contact during his public career. Many of them have been long since forgotten, but the historian will prize these appreciations of a contemporary. Anecdotes are numerous, and Mr. Boutwell is not without humor; but it is often saturnine, and his judgments are affected by his stern partisanship. His panegyric on Gen. Grant will be read with interest; that on Gen. Banks not without amusement. Mr. Boutwell has little sympathy with the civil-service-reform movement, and when he became Governor of Massachusetts he applied the doctrine of rotation in office thoroughly; yet his argument against permanency of tenure deserves consideration. In his management of the Treasury Department he displayed, according to his own statements, which we do not hesitate to accept, austere virtue; but he was not a trained financier, and his confidence in his own wisdom led him to make blunders which a broader education might have helped him to avoid. He was responsible for the coinage of the trade dollar, which proved an expensive failure. He reasoned that, as there was more silver in it than in the Mexican dollar, the peoples of the Orient would at once adopt it in place of the coin to which they had been used. The thought of failure never occurred to him; but "unfortunately," he says, "the stolidity of the Chinese and the force of habit among that people were not considered by us."

This incident shows Mr. Boutwell's limitations as a statesman. He has done much useful work, and has in many ways acquitted himself honorably. But he exhibits the defects of the self-made man. When a boy he had little schooling; when a youth he read much and wisely, studying while others slept. He mingled much with men, and his force of will, his natural intelligence, his sterling integrity, soon made him respected. He lectured in the lyceums of the day assiduously, and partly through this introduction to the people of his State he became a trusted leader. He overthrew most of his opponents easily; they were perhaps no better educated politically than he was. But his mind, though powerful, was narrow, and he dealt with the great problems of the civil war with the equipment which had been forged to meet the needs of the town-meeting. His recollections are told in a rugged style and with some repetition—one volume would have been better than two; but they are interesting and valuable. Even if we cannot regard their author as a wise statesman, we cannot help admiring him as a man who was a successful politician without losing his integrity, and who was a sincere patriot even in his partisanship.

Practical Forestry. By John Gifford, Assistant Professor of Forestry, N. Y. State College of Forestry, Cornell University. D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

This volume is not practical in the sense of being a handbook for even the youngest amateur forester. It is designed rather to afford an intelligent insight into the sorts of work in which practical foresters engage, and to present a clear account of the materials with which they have to do. Naturally, the author deals somewhat in detail also with the approved methods of managing forests under our climatic and political conditions. Moreover, he treats the whole subject in an entertaining and convincing manner, and demonstrates the entire feasibility of modifying European silviculture to meet our special needs. As a general thing, our lumbermen have criticised Forestry harshly as being a fad of doctrinaires, totally inapplicable to our North American woods, and, we may say also, inapplicable in our state of mind. There is, of course, a hopeless difference between a well-kept forest in Germany and the wild tangle of severed branches and underbrush around a lumberman's camp here. In Germany every twig fit for the faggot is saved; here, even the larger branches are left as worthless. Worse than this is the wholly undiscriminating character of the general policy which sweeps out of existence trees of different ages, leaving no young ones to replace the lost. Early efforts to show the possibility of adopting some sensible system for caring for our forests were treated with a derision which was simply disheartening. The pioneers in this propaganda were regarded as cranks of the first order

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and absolutely impracticable. They could not secure a respectful hearing. Abernethy used to say that few persons would take care of their digestion until death stared them in the face. It was not until the rapid exhaustion of some of our forests stared our landholders in the face that even a languid interest was taken in the possibility that the cranks might, after all, have something to say worth hearing. As soon as attention was once secured, many persons who had been most incredulous began to regard the general scheme with favor. At the present time there are successful forest schools, well manned with trained teachers, all acting in coöperation with the general Government.

Professor Gifford's book shows clearly the scope of the new profession, into which large numbers of intelligent students are now entering, and in which a good many graduates are likely to be successful. The time is still far distant, we fear, when sound rules of forestry will be applied to the timber districts which are under small owners, and still further off is the happy time when the important work of reforestation will be seriously undertaken on a remunerative scale. Our national forest association and the associations in the States are working in harmony and, as a rule, intelligently. The general Government and a few of the State Governments have well-considered policies in regard to this matter, and the forest schools are all excellent. In the great work of increasing public interest in forestry in general, and especially in these useful organizations, Professor Gifford's attractive book will, we hope, play an important part.

The Path to Rome. By H. Belloc. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

The dominant personal note which was a defect of taste in Mr. Belloc's clever studies of Danton and Robespierre is appropriate enough to his latest work. 'The Path to Rome,' in spite of its somewhat ambiguous title, is not a theological work, though it is the record of a pilgrimage, and the pilgrimage was the outcome of a vow.

"I said, 'I will start from the place where I served in arms for my sins; I will walk all the way and take advantage of no wheeled thing; I will sleep rough and cover thirty miles a day, and I will hear mass every morning; and I will be present at High Mass in St. Peter's on the Feast of St. Peter and St. Paul.' "

We regret to say that all these vows but one were made to be broken. But though he forsook the letter, Mr. Belloc observed the spirit of his resolutions, and did in fact start on foot from Toul in Lorraine, walked nearly the whole way, and under a summer sun at that, heard mass when it was perfectly convenient to do so, and finally reached Rome. His march lay along the Moselle to the Ballon d'Alsace, across the Jura into the plain of the Aar, and through German Switzerland. The straight path into Italy lies across the Gries Pass. This is impassable in June, and Mr. Belloc's foolhardy and unsuccessful attempt to cross it is one of the most interesting episodes in his narrative. He was reduced to the ordinary gates of the Furka and the St. Gothard.

In Switzerland his ignorance of German had made communication difficult, and he had hardly reached Italy when his inability to explain himself in Italian caused his arrest as a suspicious character. As he had already walked some hundreds of miles in the boots and lived and slept in the suit of linen clothes in which he set out, and carried no luggage but a stout club, the authorities would seem to have erred on the side of confidence when they released him on the mere utterance of the magic word "tourist."

It was twenty-five miles from Milan that Mr. Belloc proved false to the main purport of his vow, and committed the artistic blunder of taking the train as far as that city. Thence he passed by Lucca and Siena to Rome, taking the train only once more, and further indulging himself with two lifts in a cart. As an introduction to Italy, a long tramp over the sunbaked mud plains of Lombardy (Shelley's "waveless plain") under a July sun leaves everything to be desired. After the horrors of that alluvial plain,

"Do not blame me that Tuscany should have passed beneath me unnoticed, as the monotonous sea passes beneath a boat in full sail. Blame all those days of marching: hundreds upon hundreds of miles that exhausted the powers of the mind. Blame the fiery and angry sky of Etruria, that compelled most of my way to be taken at night. Blame St. Augustine, who misled me in his Confessions by talking like an African of 'the icy shores of Italy.' . . . Even the goodness of the Italian nature seemed parched up in those dry bottoms. At an inn where I ate they shouted at me, thinking in that way to make me understand; and their voices were as harsh as the grating of metal against stone."

At length he reached the outskirts of Rome:

"There was an open space; a tramway; a tram upon it about to be drawn by two lean, tired horses, whom in the heat many flies disturbed. There was dust on everything around. . . . Then (along a road perfectly straight, and bounded by factories, mean houses, and distempered walls: a road littered with many scraps of paper, bones, dirt, and refuse) I went on for several hundred yards, having the old wall of Rome before me all the time, till I came right under it at last."

To make a success of a long and solitary walking tour, a man must set out with a fund of pleasure in mere living, of scorn for discomfort, and perfect content with himself, to say nothing of physical soundness. All these were the happy portion of Mr. Belloc. Yet he will inspire no one to emulate his adventures. And the chief reason for this is that though he was well qualified to take such a journey, he lacks the power to tell the story of it. It is, of course, by sheer force of his own peculiar point of view and style that a writer can cast a glamour about the trivial incidents of the open road. We do not look to Mr. Belloc for the genius of Sterne or Stevenson, but we may be allowed to resent his neglect of such excellent material. "If you have come to this book for literature, you have come to the wrong booth and counter," he tells us; and more than once he seems to entertain himself with the certainty that the reader is finding his author's self-conscious manner irritating and tiresome. One may refuse to write literature, but why insist on being a bore when one has enough imagination and humor to be entertaining? A good deal of Mr. Belloc's worst writing is too elaborate to be reproduced here; a fair instance of pointless wit is at p. 220:

"You are not suddenly introduced to that country, but, as it were, inoculated and led on by degrees, which is a pity. For good things should come suddenly, like the demise of that wicked man, Mr. (*deleted by the censor*), who had oppressed the poor for some forty years, when he was shot dead from behind a hedge, and died in about the time it takes to boil an egg, and there was an end of him."

On the other hand, we quote a passage in which he is at his best:

"It was the first part of the afternoon when I got to a place called Meiringen, and I thought that there I would eat and drink a little more. So I steered into the main street, but there I found such a yelling and roaring as I had never heard before, and very damnable it was; as though men were determined to do common evil wherever God has given them a chance of living in awe and worship. For they were all bawling and howling, with great placards and tickets, and saying, 'This way to the Extraordinary Waterfall; that way to the Strange Cave. Come with me and you shall see the never-to-be-forgotten Falls of the Aar, and so forth.' So that my illusion of being alone in the roots of the world dropped off me very quickly, and I wondered how people could be so helpless and foolish as to travel about in Switzerland as tourists, and meet with all this vulgarity and beastliness. If a man goes to drink good wine, he does not say, 'So that the wine be good, I do not mind eating strong pepper and smelling hartshorn as I drink it'; and if a man goes to read good verse—for instance, Jean Richepin—he does not say, 'Go on playing the trombone, go on banging the cymbals; so long as I am reading good verse, I am content.' Yet men now go into the vast hills, and sleep and live in their recesses, and pretend to be indifferent to all the touts and shouters and hurry and hotels and high prices and abominations. Thank God it goes in grooves! I say it again, thank God, the railways are trenches that drain our modern marsh, for you have but to avoid railways, even by five miles, and you can get more peace than would fill a nosebag. All the world is my garden since they built railways and gave me leave to keep off them."

As a literary effort, Mr. Belloc's new book will never rank high. But his personality is interesting, and though he lacks the genius that transmutes, his picture of the route he travelled so painfully is likely to hold the attention of the reader. In a future edition we may venture to hope that he will cut out the tiresome dialogues between "Lector" and "Auctor," and the entirely irrelevant stories that block the path of his pilgrimage and interrupt the view.

The book is illustrated by sketches made on the march, good on the whole, though occasionally, like the philosophic by-play of the author, they are too trivial to be worth while.

The Old Royal Palace of Whitehall. By Edgar Sheppard, D.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902. Pp. xviii., 415.

Readers who have not been surfeited with the considerable number of books about London that have appeared of late, will find interest and pleasure in Dr. Sheppard's sumptuous volume. To the average Londoner of to-day, the old royal palace of Whitehall, if it exists at all, is probably confounded with the Banqueting Hall, now occupied by the United Service Institution. The Banqueting Hall, however, is only the last important remnant of what was once

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

an extensive series of buildings, which fire and the growth of the city have long since swept away. Dr. Sheppard's industrious researches have enabled him to reconstruct in description the Whitehall of a former time, and to exhibit the palace as the theatre of some of the most interesting events in English history.

The palace of Whitehall was for many years the London residence of the Archbishops of York, being known in consequence as York House or York Place. Under Cardinal Wolsey, who probably built or rebuilt considerable portions of it, it became distinguished "by a sumptuous magnificence that probably has never been equalled in the house of any other English subject, or surpassed in the palaces of many of its kings." Wolsey was the last archbishop to occupy the palace, and on his fall in 1529 it was taken over by the King, being treated by Henry VIII. as though it were a part of the Cardinal's private estate, although it was in fact a part of the patrimony of the see. In 1536 it was annexed to the ancient palace of Westminster. Henry VIII. took up his residence at Whitehall, and the palace continued to be the London residence of the sovereigns until the disastrous fire of 1698.

Under Henry VIII. the buildings were extended and improved, and the landed area considerably added to. By the time of James I., however, the palace was in a dilapidated condition, and the King contemplated its restoration and enlargement on a magnificent scale, but, with the exception of the Banqueting Hall, the elaborate plans of Inigo Jones were never carried out. Charles I. also contemplated reconstruction, and employed Rubens to paint the ceiling of the Banqueting Hall, but the unfortunate monarch accomplished little in the way of building. The palace had grown to immense size by the reign of Charles II. James II. made further additions and alterations, and William III. seriously considered rebuilding after the designs of Inigo Jones; but the destruction of nearly the entire collection of buildings, except the Banqueting Hall, by fire in 1698 put an end, not only to these plans, but to the further use of Whitehall as a royal residence. On the accession of George I. the Banqueting Hall was converted into a chapel royal, and was so used, save in the years 1829-37, until 1891, when it was lent by Queen Victoria to the United Service Institution.

Whitehall will always be most commonly associated with the execution of Charles I., and Dr. Sheppard devotes much attention to the difficult questions of the location of the scaffold and the determination of the window through which the King passed to his death. The palace was also, however, the home of Cromwell during most of the period of the Protectorate, and it was there that Cromwell died. Charles II. received the Lords and Commons there on his restoration, in 1660, and it was there that the same Lords and Commons met in 1688 "to settle the Prince of Orange upon the throne." William, however, disliked the palace as a residence, being always ill there, and in consequence Whitehall virtually ceased to be a royal residence after the abdication of James II.

The wealth of detailed information contained in Dr. Sheppard's book is, on the whole, well arranged and fairly digested, though at times the work savors too much of a compilation. The numerous full-page illustrations add greatly to its value. There is a careful index.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnauné, Aug. La Monnaie, le Crédit et la Change. Paris: Félix Alcan. 8 fr.
Brown, W. G. Golf. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Collingwood, W. G. The Lake Counties. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Davis, W. S. Belshazzar. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Dugard, M. De la Formation des Maitres de l'Enseignement Secondaire à l'Etranger et en France. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr.
Gage, A. P. Introduction to Physical Science. Rev. ed. Ginn & Co. $1.
Haggerty, John. How to Treat the Trusts, and How to Win in 1904. Abbey Press. 25 cents.
Hastings, Rev. James. Dictionary of the Bible. Vol. IV. Pleroma-Zuzim. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners.
Hastings, Henry. Mistress Dorothy of Haddon Hall. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Howard, Dr. B. Prisoners of Russia: A Personal Study of Convict Life. D. Appleton & Co. $1.40.
Jordan, Leopold. Interviews with a Monocle. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co. 50 cents.
Keary, C. F. The Brothers: A Fairy Masque. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Keene, R. W. The Blue Diamond. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Kennan, George. Napoleonder, from the Russian; The Napoleon of the People, from the French of Honoré de Balzac. The Outlook Company. $1.
Kenyon, C. R. The Argonauts of the Amazon. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Kingsley, Rev. Charles. Westward Ho! 2 vols. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan.
Lathers, Richard. Biographical Sketch of Colonel Richard Lathers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Louttit, G. W. A Maid of the Wildwood. Fort Wayne (Ind.): The Colonial Press.
Marchmont, A. W. Miser Hoadley's Secret. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.25.
Meyer, Kuno. Liadain and Curithir: An Irish Love-Story of the Ninth Century. London: David Nutt.
Needell, Mrs. J. H. Unstable as Water. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
Nield, Jonathan. A Guide to the Best Historical Novels and Tales. London: Elkin Mathews; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Pollak, Gustav. Our Success in Child-Training. The Contemporary Pub. Co. $1.
Pyle, Katharine. Careless Jane, and Other Tales. E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Russell, Norman. Village Work in India. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.
Sage, D., and Others. Salmon and Trout. Macmillan. $2.
Scott, E. H. Mother Holda. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Schuyler, Montgomery. Index Verborum of the Fragments of the Avesta. (Indo-Iranian Series.) Columbia University Press (Macmillan).
Simmons, J. C. My Trip to the Orient. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co. $1.50.
Simon, Pierre. A Philosophical Essay on Probabilities. John Wiley & Sons. $2.
Some of the Rhymes of Ironquill. New ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Sumichrast, F. C. de. Racine's Athalie. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Temple Bible. Numbers.—The Earlier Pauline Epistles. 2 vols. London: Dent; Philadelphia: Lippincott. 60c. each.
Thackeray, W. M. The Newcomes. 3 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Thring, Lord. Practical Legislation. Toronto: George N. Morang & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Tompkins, H. W. Highways and Byways in Hertfordshire. Macmillan. $2.
Turk, Prof. M. H. Selections from De Quincey. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Vail, I. E. Three Years on the Blockade. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Washington, Booker T. Character Building. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Welch, J. H., and Taylor, H. E. Destruction of St. Pierre, Martinique. R. F. Fenno & Co. 50 cents.
Wright, Prof. G. F. Asiatic Russia. 2 vols. McClure, Phillips & Co. $7.50 net.

JUST PUBLISHED:

SEIGNOBOS' ROME

A History of the Roman People. By Prof. CHARLES SEIGNOBOS, author of "A Political History of Europe Since 1814." Translation edited by WILLIAM FAIRLEY, Ph.D. With illustrations and maps. 528 pp. 12mo. $1.25 *net.*

This school history has all the clearness characteristic of French historical writing, and is graphic in its style. It is an interesting book. Large use has been made of legendary and anecdotal material. The editor has carried the narrative down to Charlemagne and appended to each chapter a list of sources available in English and a very full set of parallel readings.

Henry Holt & Co., NEW YORK CHICAGO.

JUST PUBLISHED.

THE BROTHERS:
A Fairy Masque.

By C. F. KEARY, Author of "A Mariage de Convenance," etc. Crown 8vo, pp. xii.-148, $1.50.

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO.,
Publishers, New York.

ASK FOR
CROWELL'S POETS

CLARENDON PRESS.

JUST PUBLISHED.

Life and Letters of Thomas Cromwell.

By ROGER BIGELOW MERRIMAN. With a Portrait and Facsimile. 2 vols. 8vo. $6.00.

A History of the Peninsular War.

By CHARLES OMAN, M.A. Vol. I. 1807-1809, from the Treaty of Fontainebleau to the Battle of Corunna. With Maps, Plans and Portraits. 8vo. $4.75.

Companion to English History (Middle Ages)

Edited by FRANCES PIERREPONT BARNARD, M.A., F.S.A. Cr. 8vo, cloth, with 97 full-page plates, $2.90.

Although this volume is designed primarily for higher educational purposes, it is believed that it will also prove of interest to the reading public at large.

A Supplement to Burnet's History of My Own Time.

Derived from his Original Memoirs, his Autobiography, his Letters to Admiral Herbert, and his Private Meditations. All hitherto unpublished. Edited by Miss H. C. FOXCROFT. Demy 8vo, cloth, $5.35.

For Sale by all Booksellers. Send for Catalogue.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS (American Branch)
91 and 93 Fifth Avenue, New York.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED